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THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

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Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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THE JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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It is a wholesome task, at the beginning of a new year, to commune with one's self, by inquiry into the effects of past conduct on bodily health and peace of mind—to contrast, in one's own bosom, good with evil; and to determine, after actual experience and feeling of the comfort of the former, and of the multiplied annoyances inflicted by the latter, so to shape our future course as to insure the continuance of the one and exemption from the other. History and biography are but retrospections of other men's conduct, for the guidance of those who peruse them. Moral suasion consists more in urging to purity of conduct, by the lessons of the past, than by promises for the future. Nearly all the benefits to be derived from these various sources, are obtained by communing with a friend, giving and receiving acknowledgments of error, and the expressions of self-conviction in favour of what was wise, just, and prudent. 'Know thyself,' as uttered by the ancient sage, is rather an exhortation than advice—rather uttered to rouse to inquiry into our past conduct, and analysis of our present feelings, than an indication of a specific line of conduct.

In beginning with our readers and friends a new year of our editorial career, we have indulged in the course of retrospection here spoken of. We have communed with ourselves, and with each other, on the bearing of the opinions advanced, and facts stated in the volume now closed. We have, in default of manly and judicious criticism from others, taken the task on ourselves, and have arrived at conclusions which, though they do not

wound our self-love, are certainly not a mere echo of this feeling. Having thus prepared ourselves, may we not be allowed, in a frank and friendly spirit, to ask our readers to lend us their ear, while we invite their attention to a brief review of topics, which we have had occasion to present to them concerning their health, and as a necessary connexion, indeed, almost integral part, the evenness of their moral feelings and the vigour of their intellectual faculties. We would pray them to engage for a brief space in the task of retrospection, and while doing so, to separate into two classes, the acts and agents by which their health has been affected during the past year. The first will include all by which they are conscious they have been injured. The second all that have manifestly contributed to their bodily well being.

Among the causes operating injuriously they will be able, by a careful retrospection, to separate those which have injured by their excess, from those which are positively and inherently detrimental. Under the first head they will probably class: 1. Eating *too promiscuously* of *numerous* articles of food, each *single one* of which, general experience shows may be made subservient to healthy nutrition. 2. Eating *too much* of one or two articles of food, which in *moderate quantity* are universally recognized as wholesome and nourishing. 3. Excess in eating, relatively to *deficiency of exercise.* 4. Excess in the same way, relatively to *period,* as heavy suppers just before going to bed. 4. Labour of body, or bodily exercise, in excess, relatively to *existing strength* or *prior habit.* 5. Labour of mind or mental exertion, too great in reference to its *duration* at any one time, or to the *particular period,* as after a full meal or at midnight. 6. Sleep and repose in bed, excessive in the entire interval, in regard to the *limited exercise of mind or body during the day,* and to the general usage and experience of other persons similarly constituted and circumstanced; or sleep and repose misplaced in regard to the period in the twenty-four hours when they are indulged in—as from midnight to eight or ten in the morning, or in the day in place of the night. 7. Amusements and recreations taken at improper periods and places; as when gymnastic exercises, including dancing, are attempted after a full meal; or visits to the theatre or ball-room prolonged late into the night; or any amusement attempted to be enjoyed in a close atmosphere, as in a crowded room, theatre, &c. 8. Exposure to a cool air, or to wind, pure in itself and of refreshing temperature, but misapplied relatively to exhaustion from great bodily exercise, much perspiration, and cool skin. 9. The use of drink, of a wrong temperature in regard to the existing state of the body, as when very cold water is drunk by a person who has been exhausted by exposure to intense solar heat and great labour; or who is at the time suffering from cramps or flying pains in the stomach: the whole mischief here has been

from the coldness, not the fluid itself, than which there is no other so salutary, safe and proper, if it be of a suitable temperature.

The agents inherently detrimental to health will be found, by the persons who indulge in retrospection of their own feelings, to be those which are neither adapted to nourish the body, nor to give appropriate stimulus and exercise to any one sense; but the effect of which is uniformly, with more or less rapidity, to weaken, by first exciting—and to destroy the balance of the functions of the body, and render unequal the operation of the mental faculties. First in degree, of the directly injurious causes, are fluid stimuli with an alcoholic basis, such as distilled and vinous liquors, solid substances of a narcotic character, and chiefly tobacco in its various forms, and opium: next in the scale are other matters called medicinal, such as salts, acids, bitter mixtures and infusions, astringents and chalybeates—when habitually or oft taken.

Next in importance to the communion with one's self about matters of direct personal interest and gratification, comes that which fixes our attention and feelings on whatever concerns those we love. Let us then invoke mothers, while reviewing the past year, to scrutinize with care the effects of the course they have pursued, on the health of their children. Have they followed out the advice and directions which, when first given, they received with readiness, and promised to act on? Has the puny and pallid infant become, during the year, a chubby faced child? or has the fulness and colour of health been exchanged in the little being for an emaciated and sickly frame? Has the occasional indulgence of its appetite for cakes, sugar plums, &c. been allowed to become a fixed indulgence? and have its colics been converted into habitual indigestion, with its accompaniments fretfulness, much crying, and irascibility? Is its sleep sound and refreshing, or broken by starts and screams? On the solution of these questions depends the course of conduct which the mother ought to pursue for the future, so as no longer to sacrifice the health of her child to her own indolence, waywardness, or forgetfulness. Let her inquire what in its clothing, its food, and its exercise in the open air is faulty, according to the opinion of those on whom she reposes confidence, and to general experience.

Does a father now make the unwelcome discovery that his son, just entering his teens, smokes a segar occasionally, and can toss off a glass of grog?—he ought to ask himself, on retrospection, what there has been in his own practice, in these particulars, to set so bad, so cruel an example.

We might greatly extend these interrogatories, in the same spirit of friendly communing with our readers: but if they allow their minds to dwell on the topics already offered to them, they cannot fail to see the bearing of others in close connexion with these. There is one great obstacle to their duly appreciating the

merits of their own case; and that is, the cravings of appetite, and the slavery of habit, induced by the long indulgence of appetite. Freedom can here only be obtained by putting in opposition to their own perverted feelings, the concurrent opinion of the wise and the learned, and the experience of that portion of mankind whose health, bodily vigour, and tranquillity of mind, are proof of the soundness of the dietetic maxims by which they are regulated.

THE CONTRAST.

Messrs. Editors,—I have recently had an opportunity of contrasting the appearance of an aged and a young man of sedentary habits, whose history may serve as a warning to some of your readers. The one is 75 years of age; yet from his erect form, firm movements, and cheerful and healthy countenance, he seems not to have reached the age of sixty-three. He is of about middle height, strong and muscular, having none of that pallid and emaciated appearance, which is so common among literary men of the present generation; although the fact that he has been a laborious instructor of youth for about half a century, would naturally have led us to other expectations. There is no appearance of decay in any of the mental faculties; on the contrary, he composed, in my presence, at the request of a friend, an original article on a given subject, that exhibited all the vigour and activity of youthful intellect, and would have done honour to the ablest periodicals of our country. His religion too, wears none of that sombre hue, which, in an instructor, is so peculiarly uninviting, and which often counteracts the natural tendency of the most important precepts, even when delivered with all the solemnity which their importance demands.

The other person seems, in some respects, to belong to a different race of beings. Pale, feeble, emaciated, and sickly, with slender and enervated muscles, and with an anxious countenance: at only 35 years of age, he seems scarcely younger than the former; and affords a striking specimen of the evils of premature mental development, in dooming a towering mind to perpetual imprisonment in a feeble body, and subjecting both to consequent premature decay and dissolution.

Whence this surprising difference? It is claimed that physical peculiarities may be *inherited*, even from a generation quite remote from us. In the present case, however, there is no evidence of any such transmission; but we have *prima facie* evidence that causes exist fully adequate to the production of pre-

sent appearances. In such a case, it is unphilosophical to refer to others more remote and obscure.

The education and habits of the two persons have made the difference. One of them was born in an age when it was not so fashionable as now, to sacrifice health of body for the sake of intellectual attainments;—when, if less Greek and Latin were *acquired*, less vigour of body was lost during the process;—when, too, it was not deemed indispensable to push the pupil through his course of study, at the earliest period possible; as if the salvation of a country or of the universe depended on his appearance upon the world's great theatre by the moment he was 18 years of age. Until he was 20 years old, he was engaged in agricultural and other manual labours, receiving no other instruction than what was afforded to the mass of the community at that time. At the age of 20 or 21, he commenced a course of study, and subsequently to this became a useful minister and instructor. But through the whole period of his long life, whether employed in instructing himself or others, he has never failed to use much physical exercise in the open air, daily; both from choice, and a conviction of its utility.

The other person, though born within the same boundaries of country, had the misfortune to be subject to a train of influences less happy. Particular circumstances, together with certain accidental occurrences, restrained him from taking part in the sports and other pursuits of those of his own age, and his mind was easily directed to books as sources of amusement. His rapid advances in his studies became a theme of conversation among his friends and acquaintance, and no pains were spared to aid him in his progress. The desire of pleasing his friends, emulation, and perhaps the love of learning for its own sake, all combined to fix his attention, and occupy his time, chiefly in mental efforts. By the time he was eighteen, he had completed his academical studies, and acquitted himself with honour. When engaged as an instructor, and in other avocations demanding much mental exertion, the habits of study he had acquired led to the neglect of physical exercise, till, involved in the horrors of dyspepsy, he discovered, almost too late, his error; and has long been doomed to a state of physical debility which will not only in a measure disappoint the hopes of his friends, but materially diminish his own usefulness and happiness.

By a more rational education, the elder individual to whom I have alluded, escaped those deteriorating influences to which the other was subjected; and though his mental faculties might have been longer in unfolding, yet the process was vastly more in harmony with the development of his physical frame, and moral powers. In the enjoyment of full health, by alternating labor with sedentary employments, he has been able to sustain

such a degree of mental exertion as would have destroyed a *modern* student;—and to continue his labours to *threescore and ten!* The younger, on the contrary, a sufferer perpetually from premature mental effort, undertaken without regard to suitable relaxation, and daily physical exercise, is sustained amid a burden of care and fatigue by that resolution and determination, I had almost said *desperation*, which rational philanthropy and Christian benevolence, quickened by a sense of his own woes, and a knowledge of their cause, can alone produce. A course, however, which must, in all probability, cut short, even of the narrow limits of threescore and ten, a life devoted without reserve to the best interests of mankind.

Too long has it been the predominating purpose of parents and instructors to elicit *mind* merely;—to expand or at least to fill the intellectual domain; come of physical and moral well-being what might. A prodigy in intellect has been hailed as Heaven's special favourite, and either directly or indirectly held up as a worthy object of universal admiration and imitation; forgetting what injury is done to the moral character, or to the health. For my own part, if I rejoice at all at precocious mental development, it is with much trembling, lest it should bring in its train the ruin of the body and the contamination of the soul. Let mind be developed, but no faster at any given time, than is consistent with the cultivation of moral character, and firm, vigorous, and increasing health. The moment we overstep these natural limits, not the mind only—not the particular faculty which is overstrained, alone,—but the whole system suffers. "Whether one member suffer, all the members suffer with it, whether one member rejoice, all the members rejoice with it," is alike the language of experience and of revelation.

RIPENING OR MATURATION OF FRUITS.

The French Royal Academy having received recently several communications relative to the process of ripening or maturation of various fruits, ordered a report to be drawn up on the subject, by a committee of the academy, the result of whose labours may be thus summed up. That during the conversion of *green* into *ripe* fruit, the process is, in every case, accompanied by the formation of carbonic acid, and the process is nearly as follows. The liquid sap of the fruit is, in the first instance, converted into a gelatinous fluid, which successively forms beneath the rind, and thus produces the volume of the fruit. When this vegetable jelly is formed in great abundance, it is not unusual for it to cause the skin of the fruit to burst, and to discharge itself in the form of gum on the surface, as in the plum and other fruits. In the

course of its circulation the sap obtains an additional portion of oxygen, by which it is converted into citric, malic, and other vegetable acids, according to the specific quality of the fruit.

As the fruit increases in bulk, the rind becomes gradually thinner, when the absorption of heat and light alters the chemical character of the pulp, and produces the saccharine qualities and flavour of the particular fruit, accompanied by the well known change of colour termed *bloom*, or ruddy blush colour. That the direct rays of the sun are the immediate agent in this process is fully proved by the fact, that if the fruit or any part of it be shaded by a leaf, or is otherwise screened from the sun, it never acquires, either wholly or in part, that ruddy aspect, nor the same flavour, as fruit that has been freely exposed to the solar rays.

The committee of the Academy, by whom the report is drawn up, found, by a set of well conducted experiments, that the pulp of vegetables, as of apples for example, on being digested for a short period in dilute vegetable acid, at a given temperature, produced a saccharine juice, analagous to the juice of grapes. That the gum, or gelatine of peas, and other similar plants, subjected to the action of oxatic acid, also produced saccharine matter. The starch or fecula of plants in like manner, on being mixed with the acid of grapes, become converted into saccharine matter, by first passing into a substance like gum arabic, and subsequently into a saccharine fluid. This conversion of vegetable mucilage and jelly into sugar, by the agency of vegetable life, has long been observed, though the process is too refined to allow of its being exactly traced in the chemical laboratory of nature. The ripening of fruit may, therefore, be compared to a spontaneous fermentation of vegetable substances by natural heat, as in the process of malting by germination and artificial heat. It is only after fruit has become fully ripe that it is fit for food—its firm, almost indigestible substance being in the process of maturation, reduced to a soft pulp, and its juices converted into a highly nutritious fluid, in which water, sugar, and vegetable jelly predominate. The wholesomeness of any fruit is always, therefore, in proportion to its pulpiness, and to its saccharine and mucilaginous qualities. It is this which renders the peach, grape, strawberry, and different varieties of the pear, so much superior for eating to most other fruits.

EPIDEMIC DISEASES.

Men have ever taken a lively interest in the histories of diseases, as subjects of direct personal application to themselves. No matter what may be the malady, they cannot be so far blinded

by the pride of station or of wealth as not to feel instinctively that they may one day be its victims. But how much greater must be the curiosity—how intense the interest excited, when we hear of diseases devastating a whole country and even extensive regions of the earth, as in the case of the plague, the influenza, and the cholera. Eagerly do we inquire into the origin, the mode of extension, and still more into the means of prevention and cure of such formidable maladies. The solution of these points is by no means easy—nay, let us at once admit, in a suitable spirit of frankness, that it is incomplete. But it is not the less important that the material facts in the case, the truth, as far as it is known, should be generally promulgated; since it has been found, by lamentable experience, that the terror resulting from ignorance and prejudice, has often caused more deaths than would have followed the visitation of the epidemic disease, abandoned to its own course.

To correct misconceptions, allay present fears, and prevent future alarms, we shall, from time to time, lay before our readers sketches of the history of EPIDEMICS.

Astrology, chemistry, and natural philosophy, have each in turn been employed to account for the origin of epidemic diseases. Contagion has played a part, to the extent of referring all to it; and in this, as in many other questions, after having gone the round of speculation and forced analogy, we are compelled to resume our course from the very point indicated by the Father of Physic,* twenty-two centuries ago, and take his writings on epidemics, on air, water, and situation, and the 3d section of his aphorisms as our chief guides.

It is but fit, in advance, to apprize the reader of the distinction between epidemic and endemic diseases. The first attack a great number of persons at the same time, may extend over a whole country or continent, depend on some general and common, but temporary or accidental cause, and last only for a limited period. The second have their origin in a fixed and stated cause, peculiar to the country, and remain without change or variation for many years. The former are more particularly dependent on the state of the atmosphere, viewed as a grand whole; the latter on the nature of the soil and its productions, and the partial emanations altering the purity of the air.

It is, however, very obvious, that, if we admit endemic febrile diseases, we must also allow the superaddition of epidemical influence, whereby the former are aggravated, and the number of persons who are attacked greatly increased. Take intermittent

Hippocrates.

and yellow fevers, for example, which, though usually restricted to certain bounds in a country, and assailing a limited number of persons, may and do at other times prevail most extensively, and with symptoms of greater malignity.

In assigning the cause of epidemical disorders, we might begin with the direct influence of the sun and moon, and other planets, and sudden and violent commotions, as earthquakes, in our own; but we prefer passing on to the more evident, if not palpable causes in the changes in the state of the atmosphere, by which we are surrounded, and which is both the source, and the conductor of these morbific agencies.

The ancients, from the very limitation of their knowledge, were brought more frequently to commune with nature, and observe the changes in the elements by which they were sensibly affected, without losing time in analyzing too minutely, or searching after first causes. Let us, then, in imitation of them, look to the medical properties of the air, that is, its different states of dryness or humidity, and of heat or cold, the direction of the winds, and, perhaps, the degree with which it is penetrated by the electric fluid, and impregnated with various vapours.

Each particular state of the atmosphere in respect to heat or cold with moisture, will, if long continued, give rise to a peculiar physiological and pathological state of the persons or people exposed to it: but we must seek for the causes of epidemic diseases in great vicissitudes of weather, and rapid transition from heat to cold, and cold to heat. From what we have said, it appears then, that epidemics may prevail at all periods of the year, but more particularly in spring and autumn, seasons which exert a marked influence over the production and nature of diseases. They are in fact, the two principal seasons for the physician; those which give the colouring and shade to the other diseases of the year. This truth, advanced by Hippocrates, has been adopted, enforced, and more fully illustrated by Sydenham, who thinks also, that in addition to these annual and successive epidemics, there is a stationary constitution of the air, which lasts many years, and under the dominion of which, the former or annual epidemics appear with modification

These grand epidemical constitutions are not, he thinks, due to the changes in the atmosphere, perceptible to our senses, but to alterations, of the nature of which we are ignorant.

THE EYE.

The eye, the organ of one of the most important of our external senses, which, by the variety of the impressions it conveys to the mind, augments immeasurably the perceptive powers of

the latter—enlarges the sphere of intellect, and adds so largely to our stock of pleasurable sensations, is in its structure less complex than might at first be supposed. It consists of two distinct parts—the ball of the eye, or the proper organ of vision, and the accessary apparatus, destined to shield it from injury, to preserve it in a fit state for the performance of its functions, and to produce the various movements of which the ball of the eye is susceptible. It is the former only, into the description of which we propose at present to enter, reserving the latter for a future occasion.

The ball or socket of the eye, as all are aware, is situated in a deep bony socket, and thus secured from a thousand accidents, to which it would otherwise be every moment liable. The socket is well lined with fat, which serves both as a soft bed for the eye ball, and, also, to facilitate its motions. When this fat diminishes, as in sickness, the eye sinks back in the head. The ball of the eye is considerably smaller than the socket, to allow room for its motions: it is not perfectly globular, but is in some degree elongated, and is composed of different coats, somewhat like the coats of an onion, which enclose several humours. Externally is a hard, opaque, pearly or bluish white coat, called *sclerotica;* this forms what is termed the white of the eye. This coat is covered with a fine transparent membrane, continuous with that which lines the eye lids. Within the sclerotic coat, and in close contact with it, is the middle coat of the eye, which is thin, rather soft, and so full of minute blood-vessels, that its inner surface has a fleecy or velvet-like appearance, from their numerous terminations. This is called by anatomists the *choroid coat.* The innermost coat of the eye is a white and extremely tender film or net work, formed by an expansion of the optic nerve, or nerve of vision. It is called the *retina.* This description applies, however, only to the posterior and lateral parts of the eye ball, for in front, instead of the opaque exterior coat, we observe a projecting transparent circular part, which from its being firm and transparent, like horn, is called the *cornea.* This portion is somewhat more convex than the sclerotic coat, representing the segment of a smaller sphere added to the segment of a greater; or, in more familiar language, it may be compared to a convex watch glass, fixed in the less convex surface of the watch case.

The connexion between the external and middle coats of the eye is very slight, depending upon a fine cellular membrane, and very small blood-vessels and nerves; except around the margin of the cornea, where these coats are firmly connected together by means of a white ring, called the *ciliary ring* or *ligament.* The middle coat proceeds anteriorly to this ring, but no longer lines the internal surface of the shell of the eye.—It is now reflected inwards, in a transverse direction, as if to form a par-

tition, and is plaited or laid in beautiful folds like the ruffle of a shirt.

Behind the transparent cornea, is one of the most beautiful parts of the eye, which is fancifully called *iris* or rainbow, from its varied colour. It is this which, in some eyes, is blue, in others dark brown, or nearly black, and in others hazel or gray. It is a delicate and very sensible membrane, attached at its circumference to the ciliary ring and dividing the eye ball into two chambers the one anterior to it, the other posterior. The iris has a round opening in its middle called the *pupil*, or sometimes, vaguely, the sight of the eye. It is this which produces the dark circle seen in the centre of the eye, varying in size according to the degree of light to which the latter is exposed. It is invariably deep black, whatever may be the colour of the iris itself, so long as the eye is free from disease. Through the pupil the rays of light are admitted into the internal parts of the eye. The dark colour of the pupil is caused by a black paste or pigment which is spread over the internal surface of the middle coat of the eye. This paint differs in colour in various animals. In the ox it is green, in the cat and owl white and silvery, in the lion golden yellow, in the dog grayish. In the peculiar race of men called albinos, as well as in ferrets, white mice, rabbits, and pigeons, the paint is altogether wanting, and the pupil appears red, from the blood contained in the numerous vessels of the choroid coat. The use of the paint is evidently to modify the intensity of the light admitted into the eye. White and pale colours reflect light, while black and deep colours absorb it; hence animals which prey in the dark, have this paint of a paler colour than in man, in whom distinct vision, in a full light, is a more useful faculty, than the power of distinguishing objects when the light of day is excluded. The eye of the cat, especially, concentrates all the light which falls upon it, the white paint reflecting it back on the objects near them: hence their eyes are observed to gleam in the dark, becoming in some measure a torch to light them to their prey. Upon the posterior surface of the iris, is, also, spread a paint upon which its colour depends: it is usually brown even in light-coloured eyes. The different shades of colour in different individuals, result from the degree of transparency possessed by the iris.

The iris is capable of expanding and contracting in such a manner as to lessen the size of the pupil on the approach of a strong light, and to enlarge it in proportion as the light is less vivid. By this beautiful yet simple contrivance, the eye adapts itself instantaneously to the different degrees of light to which it may be exposed. Were the pupil to remain always as much contracted as it is when exposed to the light of noon day, a weaker light, as that of the moon, would not be admitted with suffi-

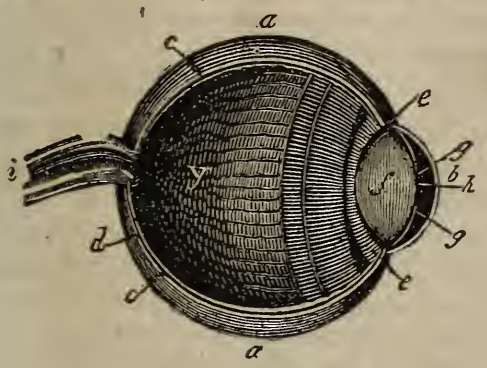
cient freedom to allow of distinct vision. On the contrary, if the pupil were permanently dilated, we might take advantage of the scattered rays of light, but should be distressed and blinded by the glorious effulgence of the sun.

The ball of the eye is filled with three substances, which differ from each other in consistence, but are all called *humours* of the eye; they are the aqueous, vitreous, and crystalline.

The *aqueous* or watery humour, which is a perfectly limpid fluid, fills the space between the iris and cornea, or the anterior chamber of the eye. Its use appears to be to distend the cornea, and preserve its convexity: it likewise affords a medium for the iris to float in, so that it may perform its motions with perfect freedom. The watery humour accordingly fills the opening of the pupil, and a small quantity of it also lies behind the iris. The portion of the eye behind the iris is much the larger one, and is chiefly filled with a transparent fluid, which, from its appearance, is called the *vitreous* or glassy humour; resembling very nearly melted glass, or the white of an egg. There is, besides, a small round transparent body, set in the front of this humour, like a diamond in a ring, immediately behind the pupil. This is the *crystalline humour* or *lens*. The glassy humour does not float freely like the watery, but is contained in a very transparent membrane, which is so arranged as to form innumerable little bags, each one containing a drop of the fluid, and so perfectly transparent as not to break the course of a single ray of light. The uses of this humour would appear to be, to keep the ball of the eye distended to the size necessary for the purposes of vision, and to retain the crystalline lens at the proper focal distance. This latter body, as has been already mentioned, is placed immediately behind the pupil, in a cup-like depression of the glassy humour. In form, it is like a very small, thick spectacle glass, or the doubly convex lens of a spy glass. It is composed of very transparent scales, laid one over the other. In the centre of the lens, these scales lie closer together than they do nearer the surface, forming a kind of firm button, which will leap out if the outer scales be divided. The whole lens is surrounded by a strong, thick, transparent and elastic skin or capsule. The use of the crystalline lens is to concentrate the rays of light, proceeding from objects in the field of vision, so as to form a distinct image of them at the bottom of the eye upon the retina, or nervous coat. From this last, through the medium of the optic nerve, the image is conveyed to the brain.

The lens becomes occasionally opaque, constituting the disease termed cataract. Sight is of course prevented, and on looking into the pupil, it is perceived to be cloudy, gray or white, and not deep black, as in the healthy eye.—The foregoing description

will be better understood by the following drawing, which represents a longitudinal section of the eye ball.



aa, Outer or sclerotic coat.—*b*, The cornea.—*cc*, Middle or choroid coat.—*d*, Inner coat, or retina.—*ee*, The ciliary ligament or ring, with the folds of the choroid coat.—*gg*, The iris.—*h*, The pupil.—*f*, The crystalline lens.—y, The posterior chamber of the eye, filled with the glassy humour.—*i*, The optic nerve.

PROXIMATE PRINCIPLES OF VEGETABLES.

A BRIEF summary of the nutritive elements of vegetable bodies will, we have reason to believe, be acceptable to our readers, and prepare them for a better understanding of the subjects of aliment, and nutrition in general.

Every distinct compound which exists ready formed in plants, is called a *proximate* or *immediate principle* of vegetables. Thus sugar, starch, and gum are proximate principles. "The proximate principles of vegetables are sometimes distributed over the whole plant, while at others they are confined to a particular part. The methods by which they are procured are very variable. Thus gum exudes spontaneously, and the saccharine juice of the maple tree is obtained by incisions made in the bark. In some cases, a particular principle is mixed with such a variety of others, that a distinct process is required for its separation. Of such processes, consists the *proximate analysis* of vegetables. Sometimes a substance is separated by mechanical means, as in the preparation of starch."*

The chief nutritive principles in vegetables, are *gluten*, *starch* or *fecula*, *sugar*, *gum*, and *oil*, on the quantity and different preparations of which depend their alimentary properties. The first of these principles may be exhibited in the familiar process of making starch from wheat flour. Thus, if we take a paste of moistened flour, enclosed in a piece of linen, and pour water on it, this fluid carries off a part of the flour, and leaves, by repeated washings and squeezing between the fingers, nothing behind but a tenacious mass, called gluten. The water has carried off the fecula or starch, which gradually falls to the bottom of the vessel, and a small proportion of sugar and gummy matter which are dissolved in it. The difference in the nutritive properties of grains and esculent roots is explicable, as we have just said, by the various proportions of these proximate principles. In many of the nut tribe, oil is the most abundant principle. In the following table, the figures are expressive of so many parts in the hundred.

	Gluten.	Starch or fecula.	Sugar or sweet matter.	Gum.	Water.
Wheat,	10 to 20	72 to 75	4	2	10.
Barley,	3	87	5	4	
Rye,	8	60			
Oats,	6	59			
Rice,	0	83 to 85			
Potatoes,	0	10 to 15			70 to 80
Arrow Root,	0	nearly all			
Sago,	0	nearly all			
Tapioca,	0	nearly all			

Turner's Chemistry—edited by Franklin Bache, M. D. Philadelphia, John Grigg.

Davy makes the proportion of gluten in wheat, to be from 19 to 24 per cent. whilst Vauquelin and Henry, of Paris, find the flour of the Paris bakers to be 10.20 to 10.25 per cent. The difference, therefore, is very great in the varieties of wheat.

The reader who is aware of the nutritive properties of the potato, will be astonished at the small proportion of fecula which it contains, and also at this being the only proximate principle of an alimentary nature. There is another principle, the woody fibre, or *lignin*, in the potato, which is in a great measure insoluble in the stomach: it is found in the proportion of from ten to fifteen per cent. In these experiments, the potato is supposed to have been peeled.

In the proximate analysis of barley, chemists discover a peculiar principle, called *hordein*, in the proportion of fifty-five per cent.; but it so nearly resembles fecula that we have classed it under the same head with this latter, which, pure, is represented as constituting thirty-two per cent. of this grain. For the same reason, we have represented sago and tapioca as consisting nearly all of *fecula* or starch, whereas, in rigid chemical classification, it should be *amidine*, or starch modified by dry heat or by boiling water.

The detailed properties of these several proximate and nutritive principles will form the subject of future notices.

HISTORY OF THE INDIAN CHOLERA.

The epidemic cholera, which is now prevailing throughout the north of Europe, adding the horrors of pestilence to those of war, has become a subject of deep interest to every portion of the civilized world. However remotely situated from the present theatre of its ravages, there is no country the inhabitants of which can flatter themselves that they are perfectly secure from its visitation. Travelling, as it does, with an unexampled rapidity; unarrested in its progress by mountains or seas; prevailing alike in the driest weather and during the deluge of periodical rains; in storms and in calms; under the scorching sun of Arabia and amid the frosts of Russia, to determine the point or period at which its further extension will be stayed, defies all human calculation. Commencing at a point almost the farthest removed from ourselves, it has already traversed nearly half of the mighty interval, and, however improbable it may appear to some, that the disease will ever extend across the Atlantic; yet, judging from its progress heretofore, and the space over which it has already passed, this is by no means impossible. The only certain means of preventing the cholera from extending itself to this country, are a timely resort to correct precautionary measures founded upon the nature of the disease and the general principles of hygiene. With this fact in view, we have conceived it to be our duty to lay before our readers a brief sketch of the rise and progress of the pestilence, and, so far as we are able, from the documents in our possession, some account of its character and causes, together with the proper means for its prevention.

The terrific epidemic which is now ravaging the immense districts of the Russian empire, commenced its destructive career in various parts of the delta formed by the Ganges, during the summer of 1817. In 1818, it had reached as far north as Saharunpore, high up on the Jumna, and extended

itself south to Cape Cormorin, its westernmost limit being at Bombay and Surat, its easternmost at Sylhet: spreading towards the interior, from the mouth of the Ganges to its confluence with the Jumna, it extended itself over a space including four hundred and fifty square miles. In 1819, it attacked the Isles of France and Bourbon, in twenty-one degrees of south latitude. In the latter island, it began early in December. Of two hundred and fifty-seven persons seized with the distemper, one hundred and seventy-eight died. In 1820, it ravaged Siam, Malacca, Java, the Philipine Islands, the southern provinces of China, and Guzzerat, in India. In 1821, it is said to have destroyed sixty thousand subjects of the prince of Oman, round Muscat: during this year, it reached Bahrein, Bassora, Bagdad, Bushire, and Shiraz. In this latter city, the population of which is forty thousand, there died sixteen thousand in the first few days. In Bassora, eighteen thousand individuals perished, of whom fourteen thousand died in two weeks. During the succeeding winter, the disease became dormant, both in Persia and Syria. In 1822, it spread to Ispahan, Teheran, and Tabriz, to Diarbekir and Moussul, and reached, in 1823, the island of Amboyna, in one hundred and twenty-seven degrees of east longitude, extending also to Antioch, in longitude thirty-six degrees, and to Astrachan, in Asiatic Russia, in latitude forty-six degrees north. Having spread, in seven years, over ninety-one degrees of longitude, from Antioch to Amboyna, and sixty-seven degrees of latitude, from the Isle of Bourbon to Astrachan, and destroyed, in its course, not less than six millions of human beings.

The disease is generally understood to have broken out first at Jessore, a city eighty or ninety miles north-east from Calcutta, in the middle of August, 1817; but it appears to have prevailed to a considerable extent in the district of Nuddea, west of the Hoogly, as early as May and June. In July, it appeared also at Patna, near three hundred miles directly north-east of Calcutta. In the first week of August, at Calcutta, at Dacca, and Dinapore; on the 17th, at Sylhet and Jessore; by the end of August, at Boglipoor and Monghyr; September 15th, at Balasore; 17th, at Buxar; 18th, at Chupra and Ghazeepoor, and, by the end of November, at Rewah and Cuttach; the two last places being separated by at least four hundred miles. The causes of the disease appear to have been in a languishing or quiescent state during the winter of 1817; but in the months of April and May, 1818, they were manifested again with extreme violence, not only in many of the places where the disease had already appeared, but also at Ougein, Hooshungabad, Nagpore, (with numerous intervening districts,) and Ganjam; all these being nearly on a line of six hundred and forty miles from north-west to south-east. In various other places on a line, north and south, of six hundred miles, from Goruckpore to Visgapatam, the disease was also prevalent during the same period, of the year 1818. The cholera appeared in the latter year, in its most malignant form, at Benares, where, in two months, fifteen thousand persons perished. At Allahabad, forty or fifty died daily; and in the district of Goruckpore thirty thousand were carried off in a month. Between the 6th and 7th of November, the epidemic had reached the grand army of India, which, on the approach of the Pindarree war, had been concentrated at Jubbulpore,

Mundellah, and Sauger, under the command of the Marquess of Hastings. It consisted of ten thousand troops and eighty thousand followers. To the different divisions of this force the cholera proved more fatal than could the shot of the enemy in a well contested field. In twelve days, nearly nine thousand men had fallen to rise no more. In this emergency, it was fortunately determined by the commander-in-chief to try the effects of a change of location. The division accordingly moved in a south-easterly direction. In a short period, the Marquess was enabled to transmit a despatch to government, intimating that, having marched fifty miles, he had at last fixed upon a dry and elevated soil, where the pestilence rapidly declined.

Cochin-China and Tonquin were visited by the cholera in 1820. In December, of this year, it entered China, beginning its ravages at Canton.—Pekin admitted the enemy in 1821, and, during this and the following year, the mortality was so extensive that coffins and other funeral requisites were necessarily furnished at the expense of the public treasury, for the interment of the poorer classes. Numbers of people, engaged in the pursuits of business or pleasure, riding or walking, were seen to fall in the streets, exhausted by the sudden impression of the disease, which carried them a few hours afterwards to eternity. In many instances, the disease caused instantaneous death. Mr. Gordon relates many cases of this kind. At Bellary, a tailor was attacked with the cholera, and instantly expired, with his work in his hands, and in the very attitude in which he was sitting.

The rapidity by which the progress of the cholera was marked, may be judged of from the following statements. In less than a month, it spread from Jessore to Calcutta, a distance of nearly one hundred miles. From Jessore it reached Bombay, a distance, say, of eleven hundred miles, in twelve months, travelling at the rate of about three miles per day! It went from Allahabad to Etawah, at the rate of five miles a day; from Etawah to Agra, at the rate of about two miles. In its course across the Deccan, it advanced, in many instances, at the rate of fifteen to eighteen miles a day. The pestilence did not spread itself at once over a large extent of country, but attacked different places in succession; travelling, as it were, by a chain of posts, and attacking a second district, after it had ravaged a first.

With these details of the progress of the disease, in India, we must close on the present occasion, intending, in our next number, to trace its entrance into the Russian empire.

Pennsylvania Temperance Convention.—On the 24th of August, a Convention of delegates from several Temperance Societies in Pennsylvania, assembled at the Court House, in Harrisburg. Twenty-eight delegates, representing seventeen societies, attended. Delegates were also appointed by the Washington county, Fayette county, Butler county, and Reading Temperance Societies, who were prevented from attending by unavoidable circumstances. The Convention was organised, by appointing ROBERTS VAUX, Esq., of Philadelphia, President, and R. N. HAVENS, of Pittsburgh, and RICHARD T. LEECH, Esqs., of Harrisburg, Secretaries. After transacting the business for which it had assembled, the Convention adjourned on the evening of the 26th.—The Governor, Secretary of State, Surveyor General, and Auditor General took seats in the Convention.

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Cholera
Prohibition of Medicinal
Different Kinds of food

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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Benevolence, if not guided by knowledge, is often the source of deplorable errors; and hence, the obvious duty of every man, whether in his individual capacity, as a member of society, or in his situation of legislator or ruler, is, to study all the bearings of the opinions which he inculcates, or of the law he is instrumental in framing. Purity of intention may prevent us regarding, or treating with asperity a person whose conduct brings his fellow creatures to ruin; but this excuse is of little avail to the sufferers, whether their minds have been tainted by seductive immorality, or their bodies destroyed by the material agents of disease.

It argues an excessively limited intellect, not to refuse, or a depraved state of feeling, knowing the general effects, and yet to grant a request, or to adopt a line of conduct, gratifying to the individual desiring it, or pleasing to the interested few, in a particular emergency, but adverse to the honest efforts, and permanent rights of the many; in fact, opposed to the true interests of the community. It is a conduct unsound in morals, unphilosophical in logic, unjust in law, and opposed to true republicanism in government, that the present contingent convenience of a few, is to justify measures which a more enlarged view of the subject would show to be productive of great, if not permanent, evil to the many. As amenable to this censure, we may instance physicians, who consent to foster the pretensions of quacks, and lend themselves to the sale of quack medicines; also physicians, writers, and others, who, to humour the false appetites and illiberal

prejudices of a limited circle in which they move, are opposed to any plans of reform in dietetics or medical police, which has for its object, and on good evidence will unquestionably have the effect, to preserve the health of the community, and prevent numerous diseases and moral ills.

We are afraid that they are amenable, also, to this censure, though their intentions be pure, who cry out contagion, urge rigid quarantine regulations on the appearance of an epidemic disease, without having duly possessed themselves of all the circumstances attending its origin and mode of transmission. It is not a sufficient justification of their advice and precautions to allege, that if they err, it is on the safe side; and thus should the disease be contagious, the preventive measures suggested by their fears, will have a salutary effect. This we can show to be a limited and hasty view of the subject. We will suppose a person to be labouring under a violent disease, marked by symptoms of extreme complexity and danger. The timidly cautious may think it proper to intimate to the friends and others in the house, that the disease is contagious, and that they had better expose themselves as little as possible to it. Now we would ask, whether this person will have the same attention paid to his wants, the same soothing kindnesses displayed to him, as before this caution?—assuredly he will not. Many of his friends will suddenly absent themselves; others will approach with a look of evident alarm, and hurry away as soon as they possibly can, compatibly with appearances. The hired attendants will do their duty imperfectly and reluctantly; drinks and medicines will be often withheld rather than their administration should oblige one to approach close to the bed-side of the patient. And what will be the effects of this conduct on the mind of the latter? None other can be expected but irritation at first, and despondency afterwards; and of course, diminished chances of recovery.

On the friends in the house, the influence of the fear of contagion, will also be very great. Fear is one of the strongest depressing powers, and predisposes more than any other cause whatever, to an attack of epidemical disease. If to this cause, constantly in operation, be added loss of rest, the chances are multiplied tenfold in favour of some one or more of the friends of the patient becoming sick, themselves. The first opinion of contagion will now seem to be corroborated by this last case. The fears of the other members of the family or persons in the house, will be aggravated beyond measure—their precautions will increase, and of course the sick will have to encounter more and more neglect.

We have but to apply what is here supposed of a single family, to a part of a city, or to a city entire, or a particular district of country, and we can imagine what must be the sufferings, not only of the sick, neglected at home, and not approached from

abroad, but also of the people generally, of the suspected district; they are shunned if they go out for a requisite supply of provisions, meat, vegetables, and fruit; and no person will run the risk of *catching* the disease, by bringing these necessary articles to their houses. All that is required to complete the scene of misery, is for government to formally sanction and enact, under heavy penalties, the entire separation of the sickly city from the surrounding country, and give the support of law to the already cruel operation of ignorant fear. Pestilence will now stalk abroad, and death carry off his victims at every hour; no change of air is allowed to the sick, no change of scene, or recreation, or of diet, to their friends and fellow citizens generally; and thus the precautions taken to guard against the spread of disease, insure the continuation of its destructive ravages; and the hundreds and thousands of those who descend to the grave—but no, they cannot even obtain burial—these hundreds and thousands, we say, who perish during the season of epidemic disease, are considered proof positive of its malignity and pestilential character. The deaths caused by cruel ignorance, are, by a still more cruel mockery, cited as evidences of forethought, and of the wisdom of prophecy. But after all, was the disease really contagious? Often times it has been proved not to be so, after all the horrors above described have been enacted, under the supposition that it was. Will it be adequate justification for those who enforced the cruel preventive measures, as they thought them, to say that they meant it for the best—that they kept on the *safe side?*

THE RUSSIAN CHOLERA.

In the account of the East India cholera contained in our last number, we traced the progress of the epidemic from its origin, in 1817 at Jessore, until its entrance into Astracan, in September 1823; at which latter place its progress appears to have been arrested by the approach of winter, in the month of November. Subsequently to the year 1823, the disease pursued its destructive career through China and various parts of India, and towards the close of 1826, after desolating several cities in Mongolia, it reached the frontiers of Siberia; its future progress was, however, checked for a time, by the prevalence of a strong north wind, during the month of February ensuing. In Persia the disease re-appeared several times; visiting, in October 1829, the city of Teheran, which is the residence of the royal family; but with the setting in of cold weather, as had previously been the case, its ravages were here also suspended.

Towards the middle of June 1830, the cholera again broke out in the provinces of Mazanderan and Shirvan, upon the southern

shore of the Caspian Sea. From thence it passed through the town of Tauris, destroying five thousand of the inhabitants. Crossing the Russian frontier, it rapidly advanced towards the interior. In two provinces, 4557 persons were seized with the malady, of whom more than one third perished. On the 8th of August, it entered Tiflis, the population of which was soon diminished from thirty to eight thousand, by death, and migration to avoid the distemper. By the 1st of July 1830, the epidemic had again reached Astracan. Ten days subsequently, 1229 individuals had been attacked, of whom more than a third died, including the civil governor, and nearly all the officers of the police. The course of the disease was no longer arrested by the approach of winter; in August of the preceding year, it first manifested itself in Orenburg, the capital of the Russian province of the same name, and attained its utmost malignity during December and January, when the cold is the most intense. In February 1830, the epidemic visited the village of Massina. The number of sufferers amounted to 3590 of whom 865 died.

In penetrating to the heart of the Russian empire, from Astracan, the cholera pursued the course of the Volga, which spreads its navigable waters over the most populous provinces.

At Moscow it made its appearance between the 24th and 27th of September, in a number of scattered cases, having previously prevailed at Nishney Novogorod, a city 280 miles east of the former. The disease increased with great rapidity, so that by the 26th of November the number attacked by it was 1066, and on that day 244 new cases were added to the list. On the 17th of November, according to the official statements, the total number affected with the disease up to that date was 6531, of whom 3508 died. The labouring classes, to a considerable amount, had been removed to their villages, and many of the nobility left the city entirely; so that the population, which is estimated at 250,000, was considerably reduced. According to Dr. Loder, physician to the Emperor of Russia, the entire number of cases which had occurred in Moscow, up to February of the present year, was 8130; of these 4385 perished. On the first of January, 1831, the disease had greatly declined in the capital, while it still continued to prevail among the troops destined to the reduction of Poland, and over various extensive provinces of the empire. From Dantzic to Odessa, and from Odessa to the White sea, the principal towns and villages have experienced its ravages. In St. Petersburgh, it appeared on the 26th of June, and by the 11th of July, of 3076 individuals attacked, 1311 had died. At Archangel, out of 1200 cases there had been 800 deaths. Of the mortality which attended it in Warsaw and Riga, we possess no accurate information.

The foregoing comprises a general view of the spread of the

epidemic cholera during the last fourteen years;—and so far as we have been furnished with documents of the limits to which it is at present confined, what may be the direction or extent of its future progress time alone can determine.

GENOA—NARROW STREETS.

The inhabitants of the United States are foolishly prone to borrow practices and notions from England, connected with private architecture, domestic economy, and personal attire, at variance with the nature of their climate, and in direct opposition to the examples set by the people of other countries, the climate of which has a close resemblance to our own. In place of taking hints from these latter, our good citizens prefer imitating the John Bull fashion, of sneering at usages which do not precisely accord with the state of things at home. Rather than attempt to mitigate the severity of the extremes of temperature, to which we are exposed during the summer and winter seasons, we talk largely of our becoming inured to all weathers, of the necessity of the hardening process, and such like generalities, which, in the mean time, go little to the prevention of suffering, disease, and death.

A constant theme for declamation with English travellers on the continent of Europe, is the narrowness of the streets, and the gloomy appearance of the houses. They who see so little of the sun at home, cannot conceive of people not acting the part of eastern magii, and of ever declining to expose themselves to the rays of that bright luminary.

In reply to these sage critics, it ought to be stated, that in all southern and eastern climes, where the heat is great, the inhabitants have always been particularly solicitous of shade, from a general and deep-rooted belief of the injurious effects of much exposure to the solar rays, especially on those who are not called upon to work regularly, and uniformly in the open air. Actuated by this belief, the inhabitants of all the southern cities of Europe, and those of Asia Minor, Egypt, and Barbary, have continued to preserve the streets very narrow.

We learn the importance which the Romans attached to shade, from a passage in Tacitus, in which he attributes the unhealthiness of Rome, after the great fire of Nero, to the streets being wider, on the rebuilding of the city, and consequently, the houses not affording the same shelter, as formerly, from the sun's rays.

Useful hints on this subject might be borrowed from the savages themselves. We remember to have seen Malays, in the island of Sumatra, with scarcely any clothing on them, but yet

who, when obliged to remain on the sea shore, trafficking with watering parties from the vessels at anchor, gathered branches from the trees, and thus formed a protection for themselves from the sun, while the more *civilized* sailors were exposed to its rays, and suffered accordingly.

We present these remarks, which we have been in the practice of repeating on a different occasion from the present, as introductory to a few passages from a late work, by a physician of some distinction, and withal, a traveller.

"I imagine that Genoa offers the closest resemblance to ancient Rome (public edifices and magnitude out of the question) that now exists in any part of the world. There was an edict issued in the former mistress of the world, that the houses should not exceed 90 feet in height, which, I think, is about the altitude of the Genoese houses. The streets of Rome could not have been narrower than those of Genoa. The effect of all this is very curious. We appear to be traversing a subterraneous city, from the gloom and depth of which, we see narrow stripes of blue sky at an immense distance above us! The storm may rage, the lightnings may flash, the thunder may roar—but all is still and dark, and tranquil as the grave in these subterranean crevasses, where the sun never darts his rays, the wind is never felt to blow —and where even the rain can scarcely descend, except from the spouts of the houses. The consequence is, that the shopkeepers, the artizans, and all the sedentary inhabitants of Genoa, live in an atmosphere which is equi-distant from the extremes of heat and cold. They are completely secured against the scorching beams of the sun, and the chilling blast of the tramontane. I could not believe the extent of this immunity till I drove out to the Pier, under the shelter of the houses, and exposed to a meridian sun. When I mounted the higher lighthouse, (Fanale,) perched on a rocky promontory near the commencement of the Mole, to enjoy the magnificent scenery of Genoa and its neighbourhood, the tramontane blast was so piercing, that, hardened as I was against atmospheric transitions, I was yet unable to withstand it for more than a few minutes at a time—and repeatedly was I obliged to retreat into the lantern to recover my breath, and elude the icy current of air from the mountains! The prospect was so enchanting, that I remained on this elevated situation for an hour, when a shivering fit and a violent paroxysm of coughing warned me that I had endangered my health—perhaps my life, for the gratification of my senses! Let no invalid ascend this tower during a tramontane! The CUSTODE at the bottom furnished me with a cup of coffee; and I walked back to the city at a quick pace, which restored the balance of the circulation, and preserved me from the effects of a chill which drove every drop of blood in my body from the surface to the

centre of the animal machine!* On entering the streets of Genoa, I was astonished at the difference of temperature. The tramontane was undistinguishable; and I breathed the gloomy but equable atmosphere, without any sensation of coldness, but rather of warmth. This fact illustrates the wisdom of constructing cities in Italy, and in all climates where great and sudden vicissitudes of temperature prevail, with high houses and narrow streets. It shows that the criticisms of the ancients on Nero's plan of building Rome with wide streets, were not without foundation in justice. I was informed by Dr. Mojon, (a very talented physician of this place) that Genoa, in consequence of its construction and peculiar site, is, in reality, one of the best localities for a pulmonary invalid along the whole line of this coast—and I believe his statement to be true. A person with weak lungs, or indeed, with any *organic disease*, cannot too sedulously avoid all sources of excitement. Light, noise, heat, and cold, when considerable in degree, are all excitants, or irritants; and, consequently, their opposites, darkness, silence, and equable temperature, are sedatives or soothers, very advantageous in complaints of an inflammatory or feverish nature. Those invalids who determine on a Winter or Spring at Genoa, would do well to select a low and sheltered, rather than a high or airy part of the town for their residence—and only venture forth in fine and still weather, when the wind is from the ocean, and not from the Alps."†

The reader will be careful, after perusing these extracts, and our own preliminary remarks, not to confound narrow and well paved streets, with dirty, narrow, and crooked ones; nor to suppose that health is compatible with entire seclusion from the broad light of day, or even from the sun's rays themselves. In the city, an artificial climate is created, which it behoves us to render as favourable as possible to life and health. This is certainly best done, by an avoidance of the extremes of temperature, and especially, as we should say, of excessive heat.

PROPORTION OF NUTRIMENT IN DIFFERENT KINDS OF FOOD.

A very interesting report on the comparative nutritive properties of food, was presented, a few years since, to the French minister of the interior, by M. M. Percy and Vauquelin, two celebrated chemists, and members of the French Institute. The high professional reputation of these gentlemen is such as to pre-

* A figurative and misleading style of expression this, derived from hydraulics, but not applicable to the movements of the fluids of the living system.—Ed. J. of H.

† Changes of Air, or the Philosophy of Travelling, &c. &c. by James Johnson, M. D. &c. Reprinted, New York, by Samuel Wood & Son, 1831.

vent any doubt existing as to the accuracy of their experiments, the results of which are as follows :—

Of *Bread* every 100lbs. weight were found to contain 80lbs. of nutritious matter. *Butcher's Meat*, averaging the various sorts, contains only 35lbs. in 100. *French Beans* (not the green pods, but the seeds) 92lbs. in 100. *Broad Kidney Beans* 89lbs.; *Peas* 93lbs.; *Lentils* (a kind of half pea, but little known in this country) 94lbs. in 100. *Greens* and *Turnips* which are the most aqueous of all the vegetables used for domestic purposes, furnish only from 6 to 8lbs. of solid nutritious matter in 100. *Carrots* 14lbs. and *Potatoes* only yielded 25lbs., of a substance valuable as nutrition, in the 100. One pound of good bread, therefore, is equal to upwards of three pounds of the best potatoes; and 75lbs. of bread, with 40lbs. of meat, are equal to 300lbs. of potatoes;—or, to go more into details, three quarters of a pound of bread with 9 ounces of meat, are equal to 3lbs. of potatoes,—1lb. of potatoes is equal to 4lbs. of cabbage and three of turnips.—But 1lb. of rice, broad beans, or French beans, is equal to 3lbs. of potatoes.

In the foregoing statement, two things will be apt to surprise the reader.—First, the greater amount of nutriment contained in bread and the farinaceous seeds generally, than in all the other articles of our ordinary food: and second, that though the potato ranks, in regard to the proportion of nutritious matter it affords, far below the foregoing, yet when compared with butcher's meat, there is found to be but 10 per cent. in favour of the latter. The experience of large bodies of men —of even extensive districts of country, is in evidence of the general truth of these conclusions. A large proportion of the most healthy and robust of the English peasantry live mainly upon farinaceous substances—the same is true, to a still greater extent, of the inhabitants of the south of Europe, and of different parts of the Asiatic continent. The potato forms, we know, the chief food of the Irish peasantry, than whom, when their constitutions have not been destroyed by causes connected with their political and moral condition, no set of men exhibit a greater amount of health, nor more athletic forms. The inhabitants of many parts of Germany enjoy perfect health upon a diet principally of different preparations of rye and barley, while the hardy, shrewd, and enterprising Scot lives on potatoes, and oat meal variously cooked.

Dr. Stark informs us, that upon a diet of 4lbs. of milk and 30 ounces of bread, his health and strength were fully sustained, while his body increased rapidly in bulk. It was remarked by Brindley, the celebrated canal engineer, that, in various works in which he had been engaged, where the workmen being paid by the piece, each exerted himself to earn as much as possible, men, from the north of Lancashire and Yorkshire, who adhered

to their customary diet of oat cake and hasty pudding, with water for their drink, sustained more labour, and made greater wages than others, who lived on bread, cheese, bacon and beer, the general diet of the labourers of the south.

Flesh presents a greater amount of nutriment in a given *bulk*, than vegetable aliment; it is also more readily digested, but it stimulates or heats the system more than the latter. It is on many accounts, especially in cold climates and during the winter season, a very useful and appropriate, though by no means, as we perceive, an essential part of the diet of the active labourer.

CAUSES OF THE EPIDEMIC CHOLERA.

To what all-pervading cause, are we to refer the production of cholera? The disease has already traversed a portion of the globe, equal in extent to upwards of seventy degrees of latitude, and one hundred degrees of longitude; it has prevailed in climates the most dissimilar, at every season of the year, and amid every variety of weather. The ordinary causes of disease, therefore, whatever influence they may exert upon its progress and malignity, afford us no satisfactory explanation of its origin. The production of epidemics of every species, is, in truth, a problem difficult, if not incapable of solution. To some peculiar morbid condition of the atmosphere, they are doubtless all to be referred—the exact nature of which, however, has heretofore, and possibly ever will escape our strictest scrutiny.

That the production of cholera, at least, is referrible to some morbid property residing in the air we breathe, is rendered almost certain, by the peculiar character of the disease. In no other manner can we explain its sudden appearance in the midst of an extensive population, the greater part of which become at once its subjects. In Mr. Jameson's Bengal report, it is stated that 2,000,000 persons had assembled to celebrate a religious festival on the shores of the Ganges; the cholera suddenly broke out amongst them, while at their devotions, and in eight days destroyed 20,000 persons! The pestilence was stayed as soon as the multitude was dispersed; it did not extend even to a village only seven miles distant.

Some of the phenomena, remarks an intelligent writer, observed in the cholera of the east, seem to indicate that the causes operated as a poisonous cloud, (if we may suppose such a thing,) would have done. The poisonous effect has often been as sudden, as we can conceive. Men in perfect health, arrive at a certain spot, and fall down by dozens; some, never to rise again, and others to escape barely with life, after excessive pain and torture.

Cases are also related of large bodies of men entering into such a stratum of poisonous air, as at Nagpoor, for instance, and also the troops which suffered so terribly on a march from Ganjam through the northern Circars. In other cases, the pestilential cloud seems to have been wafted into the midst of a stationary assemblage, as at the camp of the marquis of Hastings, on the banks of the Sinde; the disease, in this latter instance, rapidly abated after the removal of the encampment from the infected district to the high grounds at Erich.

The cessation of the cholera was equally sudden with its invasion, at least in India; where, after prevailing for a time in one place, it, as it were, ceased at once its ravages, to make as rapid an attack in another and distant quarter. It very rarely remained in much vigour at any place, for more than fifteen or twenty days, and sometimes was exhausted in a much shorter time. Armies have fled from the track of the pestilence, and been safe, out of the limits of that track.

The *intemperies* of the atmosphere to which we have referred the production of cholera, does not appear to depend upon any poisonous exhalation, derived either from the soil, or from the bodies of the sick. This is evident, as well from the wide spread of the disease, its not extending itself from a centre to a circumference, nor following the course of the wind or of the sun, nor obeying any other meteorological phenomenon: frequently indeed, it has been known to pursue its course in the very teeth of the most powerful monsoons. Contagion and miasms floating in the air, seldom extend more than a few feet beyond the spot from which they derived their source; when wafted to a greater distance, it is always in the direction of the prevailing winds.

But whatever has a tendency to vitiate the atmosphere of any given neighbourhood, would appear to invite the disease, and increase the number of its victims. Thus, the cholera has prevailed most generally, and to the greatest extent, in the thickly populated cities of the east, where cleanliness and ventilation are but little attended to; and even in these cities, its principal ravages were among the poorer and more debased of the people. A similar statement may be made in reference to its progress through the north of Europe. We also find that the dispersion of collected masses of people, as in the case of the religious assemblage on the banks of the Ganges, or removal to a dry, elevated, and more healthy situation, as in the instance of the marquis of Hastings' army, was sufficient to arrest completely the disease.

It is stated, that during the recent prevalence of the cholera in Calcutta, the dead bodies of the poor were cast into the river Hoogly, while in addition to this source of noxious exhalations, the city was in so filthy a condition, that the adjutant crane and

jackall, crows and kites, were permitted to enter the city in vast numbers, to act as scavengers.

A physician of eminence, and member of the council to whom the investigation of the nature of the disease, as it occurred in Moscow, was especially entrusted, states that the intensity of the disease was in direct ratio to the dampness of the atmosphere; the epidemic prevailing chiefly among the lower classes, who resided in moist and low situations. It is notorious, also, that inattention to cleanliness is a characteristic of these very classes. A somewhat similar statement, is also made by Dr. Rankeen, who attributes the occurrence of the cholera in Bengal, to the conjoint operation of sudden changes of weather, humid soil, and damp atmosphere; in connexion, more especially, with a diet of rice or other grain, vitiated by the wetness of the season.

Mr. M'Cormick, an East India surgeon, speaking of the cholera as it appeared in Tabriz, a town in Persia, says that the disease first began in that part of the city which is low, filthy, and crowded with poor inhabitants.

It is said that four days previous to the occurrence of the cholera in Riga, upwards of fifty cart loads of filthy rags, and almost putrid garments, the clothing of those who had died in the Russian camp, many of them of the very disease in question, were brought into the city, and deposited with all the filth with which they were imbued, in the public stores.

But notwithstanding the remote causes of the cholera are, in all probability, connected with a particular constitution and vitiated condition of the atmosphere, yet a certain condition of the human system, or a predisposition to disease, would appear to favour its production. When it made its appearance in a city, all the inhabitants were not equally liable to its attacks, many entirely escaping, notwithstanding their full exposure to its remote causes. It was among the lower classes of the people—the ill fed, ill clothed, those living in low damp houses, huts or cellars; and those given up to habits of intemperance, and careless of health, who were the first and most numerous victims of the disease. The temperate and prudent most generally escaped, or suffered but a slight attack. To this fact nearly all the physicians who have had an opportunity of studying the disease bear testimony. Dr. Jœhnichin of Moscow, declares that drunkenness, debauchery, bad food and personal indiscretions, were incontestibly its predisposing causes. Dr. Riecke informs us, that in China, the disease selected its victims from among such of the people, as live in filth and intemperance. A physician of Warsaw states, that the disease spared all those who led regular lives, and resided in healthy situations; whereas they whose constitutions had been broken down by excess and dissipation were invariably attacked. Out of 100 individuals destroyed by the cholera, it was proved that 90 had

been addicted to the abuse of spirituous liquors. Marshal Diebitsch used to drink brandy and punch frequently during the day. He, as our readers know, has been among the latest victims to this disease. The females, who were rarely addicted to the use of distilled liquors, very generally escaped. The experience of all ages has, in fact, shown that the only effectual means of escaping any epidemic disease, is to preserve the resisting powers of the system in their greatest possible vigour, by good wholesome diet, regular exercise, temperance in all things, a cheerful temper, and undaunted spirit. On the other hand, there is no surer way of inviting an attack, than to be calculating the chances, and searching after the reputed means of preservation—to brood over its terrors, or watch its approach with anxious and incessant solicitude. To attempt to drown these fears by stimulants or narcotics of any kind, to weaken the system by starvation, or derange it by repletion, are equally subversive of the end for which they are ignorantly resorted to.

MEDICAL JURISPRUDENCE.

Medical Jurisprudence, or Legal Medicine, as it is generally called on the continent of Europe, has for its object, according to an Italian writer, whose work* is now before us, to enlighten the judges in those causes or cases in which medical knowledge is demanded. If we substitute tribunals for judges, we shall probably have in a few words as correct a definition as can be given.

In an English work on the subject (Paris and Fonblanque) the subject is thus stated: "Medical Jurisprudence may be defined, a science by which medicine, and its collateral branches, are made subservient to the construction, elucidation, and administration of the laws; and to the preservation of public health.

"It accordingly resolves itself into two great divisions—into *Forensic Medicine*, comprehending the evidence and opinions necessary to be delivered in the courts of justice; and into *Medical Police*, embracing the consideration of the policy and efficiency of legal enactments for the purpose of preserving the general health and physical welfare of the community."

In whatever concerns the preservation of health by public measures, the government of all countries are at this time behind the wants and rights of the people. Gymnasia and public baths—laws regulating the intercourse between those afflicted with contagious diseases, and the healthy, are evidences to show that the ancient legislators, both sacred and profane, were more attentive to public hygiene and medical police, than our learned law enactors of the present day.

* *Introduzione alla Medicina Legale: di Lorenzo Martini.* Torino, 1825.

As it is not our intention to be either very profound or very dry, in treating the subject of Medical Jurisprudence, we shall proceed at once to lay before the reader some of the more important topics embraced in the study and practice of this science. These are, infanticide; poisoning; asphyxia, or suffocation by hanging or drowning: death by blows, wounds, or other similar violence; and insanity.

In the accusation of infanticide, we have to determine, 1. Whether the child were of such an age that it could possibly have lived after birth. 2. Whether from the condition of the mother it could have been born alive. 3. Whether it was born dead or alive, and if the latter, the true cause of its death. Connected with a knowledge of the age at which an infant can possibly live, is the decision of certain questions of inheritance.*

It is not to be expected of us that we can, consistently with the objects of this Journal, enter into details of infanticide, which are only fit for the perusal of a professional reader, and the solemnity of a criminal trial.

In accusations of poisoning, the medical jurist is called upon to ascertain whether death has been caused by any substance swallowed, or inhaled by the lungs, or applied to the skin; and to test its real nature by unequivocal demonstration.

To some persons, distinctions on which stress is laid in medico-legal inquiries, would seem to be useless refinements; but experience shows that they are often of great importance. Among these are, in a case of death presumed to have been caused by hanging, to determine whether a man found suspended by the neck, had hanged himself, or was hanged by others; and to ascertain whether this was the cause of his death, or if he had been suspended after death, caused by violence of a different kind. So, also, we may be called upon to determine whether a person taken out of the water dead, had been drowned by jumping into it, or by being thrown in by others; or whether he had been really drowned or was thrown into the water after death from another cause.

That part of Medical Jurisprudence respecting the evidences of insanity, and the validity of the plea of irresponsibility and loss of free agency, urged by friends and counsel, is one of great moment. We have in our possession a large number of cases illustrative of this subject as well as of the other topics adverted to above, the histories of which, from time to time, as our space allows, we shall lay before our readers. Judges and jurymen, which is equivalent to saying citizens in general, also lawyers and physicians, will find their interest in these accounts, by being enabled

* We remember to have heard a celebrated French professor say, that in an old trial involving property to a large amount, the court admitted that it was possible for the person claiming the estate to have been born five months after the marriage of his parents, without any impeachment of their virtue. No court would now-a-days entertain such an idea.

therefrom to correct popular prejudices, and to preserve the rights of society, while at the same time due attention is paid to the claims of humanity.

SYRUP OF MILK.

Not having time ourselves to repeat the experiments of M. Braconnot, for the preparation of the "concentrated liquor of milk," we obtained the assistance of Thomas Evans, a scientific druggist and apothecary of this city, who has kindly favoured us with the following note:—

"Five gills of new milk required one drachm of diluted hydrochloric acid, (specific gravity 1.091, and 100 grains requiring 58 grains of crystallized sub-carb. sodæ to saturate it,) to separate the curd.—The curd weighed four ounces, was soft, friable, and tasted much like the common curd sold in the market. It was slightly acidulous when tested by litmus paper. To this quantity of curd, 38 grains of crystallised sub-carb. sodæ, in powder, was added, and thoroughly incorporated with it. During this process the curd became more tough and oily, and the acid was neutralized. Taste of the mixture, bland and pleasant, not unlike new cream cheese. Half an ounce of this curd rubbed with one ounce of cold water, produced a rich liquor, similar in taste and appearance to very rich new milk. The curd does not readily dissolve in cold water: but when the water is a little warmed, the solution is easily effected.—To one ounce and a half of the liquor was added an equal quantity of sugar, forming a syrup of milk; which being evaporated by mild heat, yields about an ounce and a half of confection. A better mode of preparing the confection, is to add to one ounce of the curd, an ounce and a half of loaf sugar in powder, and rub them together: a rich and agreeable confection of milk is at once formed, which may be kept for a long time without change."

THE ACCLIMATING PRINCIPLE OF PLANTS.

From an interesting article with the above title, in the third or September number of the Monthly American Journal of Geology, we make the following extract. The article is a continuation of the subject, treated of in the first number, and manifests an observant and studious mind, accustomed to commune largely with external nature. The success of the Monthly American, which we had hoped for at its first appearance, may now be considered as an affair beyond doubt, if science, presented in varied lights and attractive forms, alternately recondite and

amusing, and adapted really to the wants and tastes of the people, can furnish any guaranty to this effect.—But to our extract:—

"The valley of the Euphrates was doubtless the native region of all those fine and delicious fruits which enrich our orchards, and enter so largely into the luxury of living. We thence derived all the succulent and nutritious vegetables that go so far to support life; and even the farinaceous grains appertain to the same region. The cereal productions began in that same valley to be the staff of life.

"Our corn, our fruit, our vegetables, our roots, and oil, have all travelled with man from Mesopotamia up to latitude 60°, and even farther, in favourable situations. The cares of man have made up for the want of climate, and his cultivation atoned for this alienation from their native spot. The Scandinavians of Europe, the Canadians of North America, and the Samoides of Asia, are now enjoying plants which care and cultivation have naturalized in their bleak climes. Melons and peaches, with many of the more tender plants and fruits, once almost tropical, have reached the 45th degree of latitude in perfection, and are found even in 50°. Rice has travelled from the tropics to 36°, and that of N. Carolina now promises to be better than that of more southern countries. The grape has reached 50°, and produces good wine and fruit in Hungary and Germany. The orange, lemon, and sugar-cane, strictly tropical, grow well in Florida, and up to 31½°, in Louisiana, and the fruit of the former much larger and better than under the equator.

"Annual plants grown for roots, and vegetables, and grain, go still farther north in proportion, than the trees and shrubs, because their whole growth is matured in one summer; and we know that the developement of vegetation is much quicker when spring does open in countries far to the north, than in the tropics. In Lapland and on Hudson's Bay, the full leaf is unfolded in one or two weeks, when spring begins, although it requires six or eight weeks in the south. Nature makes up in despatch for the want of length in her seasons, and this enables us to cultivate the annual plants very far to the north, in full perfection. The beans, pumpkins, potatoes, peas, cabbages, lettuce, celery, beets, turnips, and thousands of others, seem to disregard climate, and grow in any region or latitude where man plants and cherishes them. The fig is becoming common in France; the banana, pine-apple, and many other plants, have crossed the line of the tropics; and thousands of the plants valuable for food, clothing, and medicine, and such as are cultivated for their beauty, fragrance, or timber, are extending their climates, and promise much comfort and resource to man. Plants lately introduced, whose cultivation has not run through many ages or years, have acquired but little latitude in their growth, and show but little capacity to bear various climates, because time has not yet habituated them to such changes, and human cares have not imparted to them new habits and new powers."

THE PLEASURES OF A CANTER.

Napoleon himself, whose resource under depression of spirits, and incipient indisposition, was to put himself on diet, and mount his horse for a fast ride, would not have refused his assent to the following description of the benefits and pleasures of a canter. Next to this, in efficacy, as a cure for the blues and vapours, for the host of imaginary diseases which are too oppressive for the

poor hypochondriac to bear any longer, is—do not anticipate us, kind reader, we mean neither his drowning, nor marrying, nor any such venturous deed; the first being a mark of insanity, the latter of his *malice prepense* to injure another's peace of mind—our remedy we say is to toss the invalid into a stage-coach, and commend him to some friend in Pittsburgh, St. Louis, or Nashville, or any such decently remote part, so as to insure adequate jolting and attention to the safety of neck and limb, a forced look abroad at scenes as they present themselves, and some little efforts at civility, and a polite desire to please others, in order that the traveller may himself receive civility.

"A canter is the cure for every evil, and brings the mind back to itself sooner than all the lessons of Chrysippus and Crantor. It is the only process that, at the same time, calms your feelings, and elevates your spirits, banishes blue devils, and raises you to the society of "angels ever bright and fair." It clears the mind; it cheers the heart. It is the best preparation for all enterprises, for it puts a man in good-humour both with the world and himself; and whether you are going to make a speech or scribble a scene—whether you are about to conquer the world or yourself—order your horse. As you bound along, your wit will brighten, and your eloquence blaze, your courage grow more adamantine, and your generous feelings burn with a livelier flame. And when the exercise is over, the excitement does not cease, as when it grows from music, for your blood is up, and the brilliancy of your eye is fed by your bubbling pulses. Then, my young friend, take my advice—rush into the world, and triumph will grow out of your quick life, like Victory bounding from the palm of Jove!"

Just published at the Literary Rooms, No. 121 Chesnut Street.

A TREATISE ON BATHS AND MINERAL WATERS, By John Bell, M. D. Lecturer on the Institutes of Medicine, and Medical Jurisprudence, &c. in one 12mo volume of more than 500 pages.

The work consists of two parts. The first is divided into eight chapters, in which are given, in succession, a historical sketch of bathing; a view of the functions of the skin and means of protecting it against atmospherical vicissitudes; accounts of the utility in health, and the remedial value in diseases, both acute and chronic, of *cold, sea, tepid, warm, hot, and vapour baths.* The distinctive characters of each kind of bath, and the circumstances in which it is beneficial or hurtful, are clearly laid down, and accompanying precautions in regard to regimen and exercise in chronic diseases carefully noted. The chapters on sea and cold bathing are particularly full—the chapter on vapour baths includes also an inquiry into the efficacy of the inhalation of common watery, and of medicated vapours, as of iodine and chlorine, for the cure of consumption; the whole illustrated by cases.

The second part of the work is divided into seven chapters, in which will be found, a history of Mineral Waters, and of their general reputation in the cure of diseases. Copious accounts of the most celebrated mineral springs of the United States, and their medicinal virtues are still further illustrated by references to the powers, in these respects, of the chief mineral springs of Europe, of similar composition and temperature.

The work, though mainly addressed to the medical profession, contains numerous useful precepts and hints for the guidance of those who would resort to bathing as a means of refreshment or luxury or for the preservation of health. But in no instance is it pretended to make an invalid his own doctor, even in the use of baths; it is only meant that he should be cautioned against popular errors, and be better prepared, when actually suffering under disease, to accede more cheerfully to the recommendations of his physician to use them.

THE

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Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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In our last number, we took occasion to show, that a belief in the contagious nature of a disease, which was not conclusively proved to be so, is productive of many inconveniences to the healthy, and of manifest danger to the sick. It is no sufficient excuse for a timid person to say, that it might be discovered to be contagious, and that he would keep on the safe side, by acting as if it really were so. Connected with, and indeed forming an important feature in this matter, is the operation of *Quarantine** laws and regulations, including *Lazarettos*, on which we shall now offer a few remarks.

Legislative enactments for arresting the progress and preventing the diffusion of contagious disease, were made at a very early period, as the reader may soon convince himself, by referring to the book of Leviticus, (chap. XIII, XIV.) It is there directed that the priests should visit the houses infected with the plague of leprosy; which, if necessary, are to be scraped, and even pulled down, or the walls are to be scraped and white washed, and the infected persons to be shut up.

As directed against the spreading of epidemical fevers, the

* *Quarantine* or *quarantain*, is the French word signifying forty days.—This is the period which seems to have been fixed upon for various kinds of probation, (probably from the duration of Lent,) "we have that quarantain of the king of France, which denotes a truce of forty days appointed by St. Louis, during which time, it was expressly forbidden to take any revenge of the relations or friends of people who had fought, wounded, or affronted each other in words. So again in the law of England, the word *quarantine* denotes a benefit allowed to the widow of a man dying seised of land; by which she may challenge to continue in his capital messuage or chief mansion house, so it be not a castle, for the *space of forty days* after his decease, during which time her dower shall be assigned."—Coke upon Lit. 34, 35.

laws of *quarantine*, are, however, of more recent origin. Muratori tells us that quarantine was first ordered to be performed by the Venetians, in 1484. The extensive commerce carried on by these people, with all parts of the Levant and Egypt, would naturally expose them to frequent intercourse with places suffering from the plague, and also compel them to adopt some precautionary means of protection for themselves.

Paris and Fonblanque are disposed to eulogise the wisdom of these quarantine regulations, long since adopted and enforced in most parts of the Mediterranean; and add, that the best praise of them, is to be found in their success; "for though twelve months never elapse, but that the plague rages in some parts of the Levant, and of the coasts of Barbary, the infection has seldom reached the coasts of Italy, France, and Spain." This reasoning strikes us as not very profound. The cities of Europe have for the last century, been gradually undergoing reforms in their streets and houses, and internal economy generally, so as to admit of freer ventilation, greater cleanliness, both public and personal; in fine, an improved domestic medical police. Whereas, the cities of Turkey, Asia-Minor, Egypt, and Barbary, have undergone no such ameliorations, but have rather progressively deteriorated. Some of the worst pestilences have ravaged and almost depopulated cities in the interior of a country, either remote from, or little exposed to contact with traders and such articles of commerce as are supposed to communicate the disease. Florence and Moscow may be instanced. London has enjoyed exemption for more than a century and a half; but we all know that the great fire in 1666, by which the city was nearly destroyed, 113,000 houses having been burnt down, did more to ward off subsequent visitations of pestilence than all the quarantine regulations ever dreamed of. After that event, London was rebuilt in an improved style, with wider streets, and more airy and spacious houses:—it ceased to be a fit receptacle for plagues, and therefore had little to fear from all the alleged infection, of which bales of goods from the Levant might be supposed to be the conductors.

But, whatever facts and arguments may be adduced, to show the contagious nature of the Turkish and Egyptian plague, and we must confess that, in our judgment, they are inconclusive, no valid proof has been furnished of epidemical fevers, whether we call them yellow, bilious-remittent, cold plague, typhus-pleurisy, cholera, &c. being of this nature.

The modern doctrine of the belief in contagion, as the cause of epidemic diseases has been referred, and with much plausibility, to a device of Pope Paul III., to frighten the fathers of the council of Trent, and to serve as a pretext for translating it to Bologna. In furtherance of this scheme, Fracastorius, physician

to the council, with a stipend, was directed to publicly advocate his belief of the contagious nature of the epidemic, then prevailing at Trent, and to give it currency by sundry marvellous narratives. Among others of this nature, was, that out of one leather *coat*, for instance, (another edition has it a leather *cap*,) there died five and twenty Germans, who put it on one after another.

A revolting feature in quarantine and restrictive sanitary regulations is, that while all kinds of impediments are frequently thrown in the way of commercial intercourse, under the plea of preventing the importation of febrile diseases, the contagiousness of which is not proved by any conclusive evidence, no systematically prudential measures are taken to prevent the diffusion of those really contagious, such as small-pox.

The quarantine regulations of the present day, are for the most part an inheritance from former ages—the practice is maintained, when the belief from which it originated has been shown, in many instances, to be manifestly absurd. Boards of Health do not, as they ought, act on the deliberate sentiments of physicians, respecting the origin and means of dissemination of epidemic diseases. In our own country, they quarantine vessels from the Havanna, for fear they should bring in the yellow fever; and yet the opinion of the best informed, and most experienced physicians here, and general practice and sentiment in the West Indies is decidedly opposed to a belief in the contagiousness of this disease.

All along the sea-board, the Boards of Health of our different cities, are at this time uttering proclamations against the dreaded cholera, as if it were really a thing to be warned off, or as if it were a contagious disease; when, in fact, the great weight of testimony goes to prove that it is not. Much greater good would be done by publishing, if not enacting, sanitary regulations, calculated to make the people avoid exposure to those states of the air, and modes of living, which are eminently calculated to invite an attack of epidemic disease. Intemperate drinking and eating, late hours, and evening dissipation, scanty clothing, living in damp situations, and close apartments are much more prolific sources of epidemic disease, than all that could be imported of yellow fever from the West Indies, or of cholera from Russia, or of plague from Turkey. In place of inquiring whether the crew of a vessel have a clean bill of health, it would be a much more humane proceeding for our medical police to attend to the cleansing of streets, draining of marshes, filling up ponds, encouraging temperance throughout the land, and inculcating on the people habits of personal cleanliness, and the practice of free ablution. All our institutions, whether for the preservation of public health, or inculcating sound principles of hygiene, are behind the wants

of the age. There is an immense deal of cant about republicanism, rights of the people, &c. often uttered by the designing, and echoed by the ignorant. We wish that the true spirit of republicanism could be brought to bear on the grand questions of mental and physical education; and that those primary wants, on which all our after enjoyments in life must be based, of intellectual culture and bodily vigour and health, should engage more of the attention of our legislatures and city governments.

We have barely opened the question of quarantine regulations, it will be our duty to enlarge on and explain it more fully hereafter, in order to remove many mischievous prejudices and unfounded opinions.

NEW COSMETIC.

Gentlemen,—I am a constant reader of our public papers, and sometimes after having perused the news, foreign and domestic, cast my eye over the advertisements, among which I have recently found the announcement of a newly discovered essence of flowers—pectoral balsam of honey; a newly discovered anti-morbific powder, &c. &c. all intended, I am willing to suppose, for the good of at least that portion of the public represented by their several discoverers, and wholesale and retail venders. Of a different kind, however, is a noble, beautifying *paste* for the hands, face and neck, never known to fail; and also a *kalydor*, truly prepared from a secret direction *only known* in Italy, and celebrated for its real merit in taking off tan, scurf, freckles, &c. I suspect the words "taking off" to be an error of the press, and that the term "covering" ought to have been used in their stead; because I have often seen, both in France and Italy, the ladies' hands and necks covered with a kind of paste, which may perhaps have been this very one. "The famous Naples dew, just imported from Italy, which assumes, by the aid of chemistry, the consistency of cream, and whiteness of milk, and, without being a paint or plaster, produces on the face the good effects, only, of such :—men use it as well as women, after being shaved."

That paint or plaster of any kind ever produced any good effects on the face of a modest female, that is, one of flesh and blood, was never before known; but the contrary is certain; though it is not so certain, from the language of the advertisement, whether the ladies, as well as the gentlemen, shave or not before they make use of this famous dew; the quality and effects of which, as set forth at large and duly certified, may possibly induce some persons, fond of every new, but especially of every foreign commodity and practice, to make use of it. In regard, therefore, to the complexions of the good people of this country, particularly

the fair sex, whose angelical faces may no razor ever touch, or paint, or plaster, under any assumed name, consistency, or colour, blanch, scorch, distort or shrivel, I trouble you with, and flatter myself you will, for their sakes, make known, by means of your journal, the *newest new* discovery—the famous "*Aqua Fluvialis*," which will assume, not by the aid of chemistry, but of oat meal, the consistency of flummery, and whiteness of water gruel; and, not being paint, produces not the ill effects of such. There is no spot on the skin, foggy or brown complexion, redness or pimple, but, if it be laid on sufficiently thick, it will quite conceal, and, when rubbed off, leaves the skin clean, sound, and fresh—men use it as well as women. It keeps the skin smooth, and fills up wrinkles far better than any foreign white-wash, paint, paste, or thickened dew; it causes no soreness nor weakness of the eyes, and may be safely taken inwardly; and mixed with a little of my "*Sapo albus*," a new article, is excellent for scouring the hands. Now gentlemen, as publishers in former times sold pills to purge melancholy, composed of paper and ink, I hope this famous new cosmetic being the newest new discovery, may by your and by my means, become—as it is an innocent, useful and infallible—a universal cosmetic. Yours very respectfully,

B. Brownskin.

DEATH PRODUCED BY THE FEAR OF DYING.

The importance of removing every cause of fear from the minds of those who are labouring under disease, and of inspiring them with hopes of recovery, is well understood by every experienced practitioner. A fearful and desponding state of mind, will often render unmanageable or even fatal, a slight affection; while a serene and buoyant disposition has frequently carried a patient through a serious attack, during which his life was placed in the most imminent peril. In all dangerous diseases, the person in whom there is the least fear of dying, has invariably, other circumstances being the same, the fairest chance of surviving. Men of a desponding temperament are apt, in critical situations, to be overwhelmed by their very terrors; they are drowned by their too eager struggles to emerge—they would keep afloat, if they but remained quiescent.

One circumstance which may tend to protract, year after year, the life of consumptive patients is, that they in general either do not expect a fatal event, or wait for it with an exemplary and enviable resignation. This interesting, and for the most part, amiable class of patients, excite the sympathy of others, in proportion as they appear to be divested of anxiety about themselves. They often seem to leave us most willingly, with whom we are least willing to part.

Predictions of death, whether supposed to be supernatural or originating from human authority, have often, in consequence of the depressing operation of fear, been punctually fulfilled. The anecdote is well attested of the licentious Lord Littleton, that he expired at the very stroke of the clock, which, in a dream or supposed vision, he had been forwarned would be the signal of his departure.

It is recorded of a person who had been sentenced to be bled to death, that, instead of the punishment being actually inflicted, he was made to believe that his veins had been opened, by causing water, when his eyes were blindfolded, to trickle down his arm. This mimicry of an operation, however, stopped as completely the movements of life, as if an entire exhaustion of the vivifying fluid had been effected. The individual lost his life, although not his blood, by this imaginary venesection.—We read of another unfortunate being, who had been condemned to lose his head, that the moment after it had been laid upon the block, a reprieve arrived; but the victim was already sacrificed. His ear was now deaf to the dilatory mercy; the living principle having been as effectually extinguished by the fear of the axe, as it would have been by its fall. Many of the deaths which take place upon a field of battle, without the individuals being wounded in the slightest degree, all of which were formerly attributed to the wind of a flying ball, are no doubt to be accounted for from the sedative effects of intense fear.—In Lesinky's voyages around the world, there is an account, the truth of which is attested by other navigators, of a religious sect in the Sandwich Islands, who arrogate to themselves the power of praying people to death. Whoever incurs their displeasure receives notice that the homicidical litany is about to commence; and such are the effects of imagination, that the very notice is frequently sufficient, with these poor people, to produce the effect. Tell a timorous man, even though brought up amid all the light of civilization, that he will die, and if he has been in the habit of looking up with reverence to your opinion, in all probability he will sink into his grave—though otherwise his life might have been prolonged. Pronounce the sentence with sufficient decision and solemnity, and, under certain circumstances, it will execute itself.

We are not advocates for imposing wantonly or unnecessarily upon the hopes of an invalid, under the pretence of remedying his distemper. Deception, however skillful, is liable to discovery, and when once detected, an individual forfeits his future right to credit and authority. By raising hopes where the speedy event shows that there existed no ground for them, we deprive ourselves of the power, for ever after, of inspiring confidence in those cases where we have not the least suspicion of danger. But by terrifying the imagination of the sick, to *create* danger, where

none had previously existed; by some treacherous logic to reason an individual into illness, or when a trifling ailment is present to aggravate it into a serious malady, by representing it as already such, is what we would most strenuously urge all who are called upon to minister to those of feeble health, or to surround the bed of sickness, carefully to guard against. Let the expression of gloom be banished from the face of the medical attendant.—Let the language of cheerfulness and of comfort dwell upon his tongue —but above all, guard the sick from the melancholy foreboding and gloomy predictions of indiscreet friends and tattling neighbours.

If, during a serious illness, a patient hears accidentally of the death of some old acquaintance, especially if it be a person of nearly the same age as himself, or affected with the same, or a somewhat similar complaint, it will, not so much from sorrow for the loss as by exciting or aggravating his apprehensions for his own fate, be calculated to produce an unfavourable effect upon the termination of his malady. Even in ordinary health, the shock we feel at the final departure of a friend, still in the prime of life, may often arise, in part at least, from the unwelcome hint which it gives us of our own mortality. Another circumstance, which has often accelerated death, is the preparation which we make for it, when sickness has approached us, in the *post obit* disposal of our worldly property. Many a sick man has died of making his will. After having fixed the signature to his last testament, viewing it as a kind of prelude to the funeral ceremonies, the spirits and strength of the invalid will often be found irretrievably to sink; no mental stimulus will subsequently arouse him, no medicine afford mitigation to his complaint. This fact constitutes a powerful argument in favour of performing this duty to survivors, whilst yet in a state of health and vigour, when the task will have a better chance of being judiciously executed, and at the same time, without any risk of disturbance or injury to the body or to the mind.

ON DEW.

An inquiry into actual and perceptible atmospherical changes after the decline of the sun below the horizon, will show how far they go to explain the attacks of disease during the night.

At variance with pre-conceived opinions, is the now well established fact, that dew is only in a small proportion the product of vapour rising from the earth at night, but is rather the result of the precipitation of moisture from the air, on its meeting the colder substances on the surface of the earth, or within a few feet of it. This coldness depends on the radiation of heat by the

earth during the night, in return for the heat radiated to it by the sun during the day, and which, if suffered to accumulate, would destroy the present constitution of our globe. The surface of the earth thus rendered colder than the neighbouring air, condenses a part of the watery vapour of the atmosphere into dew. This condensation is, of course, most perceptible on those bodies which soonest become cold by the radiation of their heat. For this reason we find that the quantity of dew on grass is much greater than on a gravel-walk or garden mould, the former being often ten or twelve degrees of Fahrenheit colder than the latter. *The fluid, then, of dew appears chiefly where it is most wanted, on herbage and low plants, avoiding in a great measure, rocks, bare earth, and considerable masses of water.* Bright metals exposed to a clear sky in a calm night will be less dewed on their upper surface than other solid bodies, since they lose the smallest quantity of heat by radiation to the heavens.

In corroboration of this theory of dew, we learn, that in Egypt, a little before the rising of the Nile, and consequently when the ground there is in its driest state, dew becomes exceedingly plentiful, though little or none had formed before, when the earth was somewhat less dry. A parcel of wool on a board, raised a few feet from the ground, acquires more dew than wool upon a grass-plot. Lastly, if dew were the vapour from the earth, it should never appear in any considerable quantity without being accompanied with fog or mist; now it has been found that the formation of the most abundant dew is consistent with a pellucid state of the atmosphere; and in Egypt, according to Hasselquist, during the season remarkable for the most profuse dews, the nights are as resplendent with stars, in the midst of summer, as the lightest and clearest winter nights in the north.

From these facts we learn how the inhabitants of certain hot countries, who sleep at night on the tops of their houses, are cooled during this exposure, by the radiation of their heat to the sky. We also explain the greater chill which we often experience upon passing at night from the cover of a house into the open air, than might have been expected from the cold of the external atmosphere. The short transition from the streets of a city, to the open lots adjoining it, especially if there be any vegetable growth in the latter, is attended with a very perceptible and even painful sensation of chilliness in a summer's evening. On a clear night in an open part of the country, nothing, almost, can be returned from above in place of the heat which we radiate upwards. In towns, however, some compensation will be afforded, even on the clearest nights, for the heat which we lose in the open air, by that which is radiated to us from the surrounding buildings.

Bodies may be protected from dew by a canopy of matting or sail-

cloth, even though the sides be entirely open, and a free passage of air admitted under it. Any kind of cloth, even placed perpendicularly to the earth, will afford protection from dew, by preventing, in part, the loss of heat by radiation.

Though dew, conformable to the principles here laid down, can never be formed in temperate climates upon the naked parts of a living and healthy human body during night, yet in very hot countries its uncovered parts may sometimes, from being considerably colder than the air, condense the watery vapour of the atmosphere, and hence be covered with a real dew, even in the day time.*

We may from the above, account for most of the noxious effects of exposure to night air. The fatigues of the day place the body in a state peculiarly liable to be affected by any unusual impression, whether of atmospherical vicissitudes, or of ingesta, or the passions. In the case of persons sleeping exposed to the night air, we have a reduction of temperature of many degrees; continued loss of heat by radiation from their bodies, and the sudden application of humidity to a skin strongly excited by the sun during the day, and partially exhausted in function by prior profuse perspiration. The conditions for a great formation of dew and precipitation of moisture, will be, the prior evaporation from masses of water, and the adjoining earth in such a state as to radiate freely its caloric, and be much colder than the superincumbent air. Now, we know, that both these conditions are united in marshy districts, and, of course, in them have we to apprehend the worst effects of humidity. But dew is not, as we have seen, the product of air in the neighbourhood of marshes alone. It will fall heavy where vegetation is abundant, and may be seen on hills as well as on low grounds. Exposure to it and the colder night air, will in the spring produce pleurisies and rheumatisms; in the summer cholera and diarrhœa; in the autumn dysentery and periodical fevers. Disease will display itself according to the order of parts which were rendered susceptible by the pre-existing season or atmospherical constitution. Thus, ophthalmia is common in Syria and Egypt, with those who sleep on the house tops exposed to the night air and dews. The great heat and light of the day, increased by the reflection from the sand and rocks, had made in those persons the eyes their most irritable part, and, of course, that which will first suffer by any succeeding agent suddenly applied to the body. Soldiers on a campaign, and similarly exposed to night air, after a long and fatiguing march, will have, some dysentery, others fever, according to the previous state of their digestive canal, arising out of individual peculiarities, or the use of crude food.

* For further particulars the reader is referred to Wells on Dew.

DEFORMITY AMONG ARTIZANS.

Deformity, says Thackrah,* as an occasional result of manufactures, we must briefly notice. In this town (Leeds) and neighbourhood we frequently see not very marked deformity, but such a degree as to affect the figure and capability of motion. Many operatives have an absolute defect of exertion. The smaller muscles only are brought into full activity. The limbs, consequently, and especially in the growing youth, take the form which is induced by the weight of the body and the posture required in the employ. The spine evidently suffers. Wanting the action of its extensor muscles, it falls into curves; and these, by altering more or less the situation of the upper extremities, produce decided deformity. Such is the natural result of *defect* of muscular exertion. But many operatives have an *excess*. In some of these, however, this excess is partial. One set of muscles is immoderately and almost constantly exerted, while another wastes for want of action. The general figure is consequently depraved.

Though there are numerous exceptions in the kinds of employment respectively, as well as among individuals in each, we may make a general remark, that the labouring classes, if muscular and well-fed, are massy without regularity, and often without proportionate power;—if "light made," they are not remarkable for promptitude or adroitness of action. Some years ago, in examining recruits for the army, I particularly remarked the frequency of deformity. In fact, a really fine figure is rarely to be found among our artizans.† In the upper classes, we make a different remark. Though young ladies are often deformed from the want of proper exercise, their brothers are generally well-proportioned. The sports and license of youth give them a decided advantage, not only over the sedate sex, but also over the factory boys and the apprentices of sedentary artizans.

THE CAUSES OF PERIODICAL FEVERS.

The subject of periodical fevers, such as intermittents and remittents, is always an interesting one to the inhabitants of the United States. As elucidating some of the obscurities con-

* The Effects of the principal Arts, Trades, and Professions, and of Civic States and Habits of Living, on Health and Longevity: with a particular reference to the trades and manufactures of Leeds; and suggestions for the removal of many of the agents, which produce disease, and shorten the duration of life. By C. Turner Thackrah. From the London Edition, with improvements. Published by Henry H. Porter, Literary Rooms, No. 121 Chesnut Street, Philadelphia, 1831.

† Abbé du Bos, after visiting England, has made respectful mention of the beautiful proportions of our swine, bulls, and other quadrupeds, but not a word has he said of the beautiful proportions of our men and women. On the other hand, we read when schoolboys, that St. Gregory was so struck with the fine appearance of some English slaves in the market at Rome, that he exclaimed, "Non Angli, sed Angeli."

nected with the origin of these diseases, and also as furnishing some useful precautionary hints, the following opinions of a learned Roman physician, will, we are sure, be well received by our readers. They are extracted from a paper which we translated from the original letter, sent over for publication in the *North American Medical and Surgical Journal*, Vol. VII.

Some years, says Folchi, the author of the essay, have now elapsed since, while advocating with Brocchi the utility of woollen garments in the country around Rome, in which periodical fevers prevail to such an extent, I adduced some facts tending to exclude the supposed agency of *marsh miasma*, and to exhibit as remote causes of those fevers the moisture and diminished temperature which occur in the sickly regions above mentioned during the night. (*Giornale Arcadico. Gennajo*, 1823, *p.* 1.) It will not be foreign from our present purpose to recapitulate these facts. 1. A hot and constantly dry summer is the most exempt from fevers; whereas the most sickly one is that in which falls of rain alternate with atmospherical vicissitudes of temperature. This fact has no need of confirmation, since it is one of familiar experience with Roman practitioners. It may, however, be well to mention, that in 1826, when we had so great an increase of fever patients as to require the opening of an additional hall in San Spirito, there had not been that dry summer which had been met with during the five years preceding. 2. The inhabitants of Rome who had not gone into the country, contracted, nevertheless, periodical fevers by remaining during the night in those parts of the city in which, assuredly, the air was cool and moist, but in which there could not be suspected any marsh miasm; so also were they seized with fever, who dwelt on rivulets remote from the centre of the city, near gardens, reservoirs of water, and in the centre itself, on the banks of the Tiber. 3. The frequent relapses in those who had suffered from periodical fevers in the city, proceeded not from the convalescent going into a suspected miasmatic spot, but from his leaving the house early in the morning, and returning late in the evening, which is equivalent to saying, that he was exposed to a cool and moist air. 4. In the dangerous months, a fever has often attacked a person who had not been out of the city, but who, from some pressing cause, had been overheated, and who, after being bathed in sweat and exposed to a current of cool air, had his body strongly chilled; so, likewise, he who slept during the night with the window of his room open, became readily subject to the disease. 5. In these dangerous months, if there happened a change in the atmosphere from dry to moist, and from hot to cold, and a loss of

Opposite facts and opinions may easily be adduced on such a subject. But, on the whole, it seems probable that when our country had few arts and manufactures, the figure as well as health of its inhabitants, was better than at present.

equilibrium in the electricity of the air, very susceptible persons, such as those troubled with hysteria and hypochondriasis, felt such disturbance through their whole frames and so manifest a coldness, that they imagined themselves to be seized with fever; and at times there ensued in them a degree of heat and alteration of the pulse, having all the appearance of a fever of periodicity. 6. I have myself known an individual to be attacked with this kind of fever from having, during the suspected season, fallen asleep near a rivulet: the ground adjoining it was, however, perfectly dry; nor was there any stagnant water in the neighbourhood. 7. Many persons, likewise, are known to me, who have during many years preserved themselves from fever in the worst parts of the country around Rome, by adopting the most rigid caution in retiring within their houses before evening, closing the windows, and warming the rooms; and taking care not to go out in the morning until the sun had been some time above the horizon. 8. During my stay in Terracina, of more than forty days, and at a time when periodical fevers were extremely prevalent, I constantly observed that the atmosphere of the Pontine marshes was filled with a dense vesicular vapour shortly after the setting of the sun, and before day-break. 9. Our country people are little or not at all protected against humidity and nocturnal cold, are badly fed, often sleeping exposed to the heavens, with their bodies half covered by tattered garments; very different from the wealthy and noble, who are accustomed to wear woollen clothes, eat flesh meat, take particular care of their skin by the frequent use of baths, and who always retire to their houses towards evening, to wait for supper. 10. Finally, I adduced a negative argument, but yet one which merits to be taken into the account, viz. that neither Carradori nor Brocchi, nor any other chemist or natural philosopher, has been able to discover one atom of the supposed miasm, though they concentrated and examined with the greatest care the vapour in which it is supposed to exist. This series of facts, sustained by numerous observations, is now adduced with the double view of excluding a belief in marsh miasm, as a material cause of intermittent fevers in the *campagna* around Rome, and of explaining the remote causes of these maladies. To my mind, the watery vapour which is constantly given out from a moist soil during the heat of the day, and which, becoming denser at night, descends towards the lower strata of the atmosphere, accompanied with a notable diminution of temperature,* is the agent which, in a body predisposed to it, occasions the fever in question; in using the language of pathologists, it ought to be called the occasional cause.

* The cause of this diminished temperature, and of the consequent precipitation of moisture in the form of dew, has been already explained in a former part of this number. See p. 41—43.

GAMES OF THE ANCIENT ROMANS.

Since our notice of the work of Horatio Smith, from which we extracted an account of the Olympic Games, it has, we discover, been republished,* with additions, by Samuel A. Woodworth, of New York. The following extract from the chapter on the games of the ancient Romans will, it is believed, be acceptable to our readers.

"At a very early period we find the games of the Romans regulated with great order and method. Under the republic, the consuls and pretors presided over the Circensian, Apollinarian, and Secular Games; the plebeian ediles had the direction of the Plebeian Games; the curule ediles, or the pretor, superintended the festivals dedicated to Jupiter, Ceres, Apollo, Cybele, and the other chief gods. These latter celebrations, which continued during three days, were originally termed Ludi Magni; but upon the term being extended to four days by a decree of the senate, they took the name of Ludi Maximi. Games were instituted by the Romans, not only in honour of the celestial deities of all nations, but even to propitiate those who presided over the infernal regions; while the Feralia was a festival established in honour of deceased mortals. Thus were heaven, Tartarus, and the grave, all laid under contribution for holidays, by a religion which may be literally termed jovial, whether in the ancient or modern acceptation of that word. The Feralia continued for eleven days, during which time presents were carried to the graves of the dead, whose *manes*, it was universally believed, came and hovered over their tombs, and feasted upon the provisions which had been placed there by the hand of piety and affection. It was also believed that during this period they enjoyed rest and liberty, and a suspension from their punishment in the infernal regions.

The Scenic Games, adopted from those of Greece, consisted of tragedies, comedies, and satires, represented at the theatre in honour of Bacchus, Venus and Apollo. To render these exhibitions more attractive to the common people, they were accompanied by rope-dancing, tumbling, and similar performances. Afterwards were introduced the pantomimes and buffoons, to which the Romans, like the degenerate Greeks, became so passionately attached, when the public taste and manners had become equally corrupt, that they superseded the more regular drama. There was no fixed time for these exhibitions, any more than for those amphitheatrical shows which were given by the consuls and emperors to acquire popularity, and which con-

* By J. & J. Harper, being the twenty-fifth number of the Family Library—12 mo.—pp. 356—1831.

sisted in the combats of men and animals. So numerous, however, were the games of stated occurrence, that we can do no more than briefly recapitulate the names of the most celebrated.

The Actian Games, consecrated to Apollo in commemoration of the victory of Augustus over Mark Antony at Actium, were held every third or fifth year, with great pomp, in the Roman stadium, and consisted of gymnastic sports, musical competitions, and horse-racing. In the reign of Tiberius were established the Ludi Augustales, in honour of Augustus, the first representation of which was disturbed by the breaking out of the quarrel between the comedians and the buffoons, where rival factions so often subsequently embroiled the theatrical representations. Livia established, in honour of the same emperor, the Palatine Games, to which the Romans were perhaps more indebted than to any other, since their celebration afforded an opportunity for the destruction of the monster Caligula. The Certamina Neronia were literary competitions, established by the tyrant from whom they were named, who affected to be a patron as well as an adept in all the liberal arts. Among other prizes there was one for music, by which we are to understand poetry, since we are expressly told by Suetonius, that Nero himself won the crown of poetry and eloquence; none of his antagonists, probably, choosing to surpass so formidable an antagonist. Games, upon various models, were also founded in commemoration of Commodus, Adrian, Antoninus, and many other illustrious and infamous individuals; while all the leading and many of the subordinate deities in the mythological army of the pagans were honoured, at stated periods, by festivals and sacrifices; so that one almost wonders how the people could snatch sufficient time from the business of pleasure and the public shows, to attend to the diurnal cares and pursuits of life.

Besides these numerous festivities—for, though many of them professed to be religious ceremonies, they were essentially merry-makings and revels—there were the Secular Games, revived by Augustus, and celebrated only once in a hundred years. Every thing appertaining to these games were calculated to impress the superstitious mind with deep and solemn reverence. From the long interval between the celebrations, none could have seen them before, none could ever hope to behold them again. Slaves and strangers were excluded from any participation in this great national festival; the mystic sacrifices to Pluto and Proserpine, to the Fates, and to the earth, were performed at night on the banks of the Tiber; the Campus Martius, which was illuminated with innumerable lamps and torches, resounded with music and dancing, and the temples with the choral hymns of youths and virgins imploring the gods to preserve the virtue, the felicity, and the empire of the Roman people. While these supplications were

tendered the statues of the deities were placed on cushions, where they were served with the most exquisite dainties. During the three days of the festival three different pieces of music were performed, the scene being changed as well as the form of the entertainment. On the first the people assembled in the Campus Martius; on the second in the Capitol; the third upon Mount Palatine. A full and beautiful description of these games is furnished by the Carmen Sæculare of Horace, who was appointed the laureate to celebrate their revival by Augustus, and whose Ode, like those of Pindar upon the Olympic Games, is all that remains to us of the great and gorgeous spectacle that it commemorates.

When the Romans became masters of the world they accorded the right of stated public shows to such cities as required it; the names of which places are preserved in the Arundel marbles, and other ancient inscriptions. Games of all sorts—floral, funeral, Compitalian, and many others, as well as the numerous festivals in honour of deities, heroes, and men, were held in most of the provincial towns as well as in Rome itself. These closely resembled the religious ceremonies of the Greeks, from whom indeed they were chiefly borrowed; but none of them equalled in celebrity or magnificence the Olympic Games, of which we have already given a description.

A Gastronomic Syllogism.—"A good eater must be a good man; for a good eater must have a good digestion, and a good digestion depends upon a good conscience."

Somnambulism.—"In Lodge's 'Historical Portrait,' there is a likeness, by Sir Peter Lely, of Lord Culpepper's brother, so famous as a dreamer. In 1686, he was indicted at the Old Bailey, for shooting one of the guards, and his horse to boot. He pleaded somnambulism, and was acquitted on producing nearly fifty witnesses to prove the extraordinary things he did in his sleep.

"Morrison in his 'Medicine no Mystery,' speaks of a clergyman who used to get up in the night, light his candle, write sermons, correct them with interlineations, and retire to bed again, being all the time fast asleep."

No Croaking.—"If a man be gloomy, let him keep to himself. No one has a right to go croaking about society or what is worse, looking as if he stifled grief. These fellows should be put in the pound. I like a good broken heart or so, now and then; but then we should retire to the Sierra Morena mountains, and live upon locusts and wild honey."

TEMPERANCE MOVEMENTS AND ADDRESSES.

The heart of the philanthropist and of the truly religious man, must be rejoiced at the continued success of the Temperance cause. Senseless opposition, by sarcasm and misrepresentation, is no longer attempted; and its enemies and pretended friends are fain to shelter themselves under certain forms of special pleading, such as, that intemperance in eating ought to be deprecated as much as intemperance in drinking; and that moral temperance is worthy of all approval and encouragement, and ought to be sustained in the community by social bonds and pledges, as well as physical temperance. All this is very true.—What denouncer of intoxicating drink denies it? But are we to look quietly on at an enormous and admitted evil until the millennium arrives, when it and all others are to be either abated or done away? The first grand step and the necessary support of *moral* is *physical* temperance. No confidence can be placed in the permanency of the former, if the latter be wanting.

We do not pretend to keep the readers of this journal regularly apprised of all the Temperance Reports and Addresses which are made in different parts of the country. We are content to be able to advocate its fundamental principles of the cause, and to show their intimate connection with bodily health and mental vigour and tranquillity. It gives us pleasure, however, when we have it in our power to direct public attention still more to an address, which we know to have been dictated by an ingenuous love of the cause and zeal in its service. Of this nature is the address "by Doctor J. R. W. Dunbar, delivered, by appointment, before the friends of Temperance in the Kent street Presbyterian church, in the town of Winchester, (Va.) July 21st, 1831."

It is pleasant to find youthful ardour tempered by discretion, and professional knowledge adorned by general literature and taste, enlisted in the cause of temperance, as in the case of Doctor Dunbar. He speaks, we well know, with a full conviction of the importance of his subject, and with a thorough determination to give it the assistance of his talents and example. He could not have a nobler object in view, and from our hearts we wish him success in the fulfilment of this as well as of all his other generous purposes.

The Anniversary Report of the Managers of the Pennsylvania Temperance Society for discouraging the use of ardent spirits, read on the 27th May, 1831, pp. 72, has been published. The Report itself occupies only the first fourteen pages of the pamphlet; the remainder consists of an Appendix of fifty-eight pages. It has been not inaptly called "the Temperate Man's Text-book," from the large collection of facts, and as we conceive cogent arguments in support of every position maintained by the friends of temperance, who would desire to abstain from the use of all intoxicating drinks.—As the Report, including Appendix, is stereotyped, it can be supplied to readers to almost any extent.

The circulars of the Societies of New York and Albany lately issued, manifest a determined spirit to advance, by all fitting means, the good cause.

The formation of a *Southwark* Temperance Society, shows also, independently of other proofs, that we are not idle here at home.

The Journal of Health, is published at the Literary Rooms, No. 121 Chesnut street, Henry H. Porter, proprietor, on the second and fourth Wednesdays of every month. The subscription is $1.25 per annum, payable in advance.—The first and second volumes can be had, as above, in boards or bound.—The postage on each number of the Journal is the same as on newspapers.

Porter's Health Almanac for 1832, calculated generally for all parts of the United States. The Maxims and Rules for the preservation of Health under the direction of the Editors of the Journal of Health.—This work, consisting of 80 pages, neatly printed, can be obtained by the single copy or the dozen, on application as above.

III - 3

LITERARY ROOMS,

No. 121, Chesnut Street, Philadelphia.

THE MONTHLY AMERICAN

Journal of Geology and Natural Science,

CONDUCTED BY G. W. FEATHERSTONHAUGH, ESQ.

Is published on the first of every month—price $3.50 per annum, in advance.

JUST PUBLISHED,

The Catechism of Health;

Or, Plain and Simple Rules for the Preservation of the Health and Vigour of the Constitution, from Infancy to Old Age. Dedicated to the Youth of both sexes throughout the United States, as well as to their Parents and Guardians. Cheap edition—price 37 1-2 cents.

Recommendations.

"The Catechism of Health" is, in my opinion, one of the most useful works of that nature ever issued from the Philadelphia press. Its lessons are simple and convincing; and, if duly regarded, will greatly promote the temporal welfare of mankind. Our youth, especially, should be induced to adopt its rules, and to this end it would prove an invaluable book for all our elementary schools. ROBERTS VAUX.

"The Catechism of Health" presents the best views upon the most important subjects connected with the preservation of health. A knowledge of its principles should be considered an essential part of the education of every individual, and they cannot be too early inculcated.

J. C. OTTO, M. D. *one of the Physicians of the Pennsylvania Hospital.*

The public are deeply indebted to you or your Journal of Health, and now for a new work so eminently calculated to rescue thousands of constitutions from ruin. The precepts and rules are prescribed in a style plain and familiar to all classes, and constitute a system of inestimable value.

JAMES THATCHER, M. D. *Author of various medical and historical works.*

After hastily examining the contents of this work, I feel entire freedom to recommend it as deserving the patronage of the public. I have found it replete with sound and valuable instruction, on the subject of Health, conveyed in a style so familiar and perspicuous, as to be readily understood by the class of readers for whom it is professedly intended.

THOMAS HARRIS, M. D. *Surgeon in the U. S. Navy, Lecturer on Operative Surgery, and one of the Surgeons of the Pennsylvania Hospital.*

Extract of a letter from the hon. James Kent, late Chancellor of the State of New York, dated May 12, 1831.—"I have read through your Catechism of Health, and I think it is a code of admirable precepts and advice, which ought to be early and deeply impressed on the minds of the rising generation."

Extract from a letter addressed to the publisher of the Catechism of Health, by Professor Moses Stuart, of Andover, Mass.—"I wish that every man, woman and child in our land, would study this Catechism, imbibe its spirit, and practice its principles. It is a book especially entitled to the notice and patronage of all such as are entrusted with the care and education of youth; and most persons, of maturer years, will find in it much that is instructive and useful, in respect to the important subject of preserving health."

This Catechism contains few, if any direction, which have not been supported by the experience of ages. If it should be generally read, as an English Class Book, in common and higher schools, it would be likely to imbue millions with practical wisdom, and would do much to promote the bodily and mental vigour of future generations. EZRA STILES ELY, D. D.

JUST PUBLISHED,

In one volume, 12mo. containing 532 pages,

A Treatise on Baths and Mineral Waters,

Including an account of the influence on health, and in the cure of disease, of cold and sea bathing, warm, hot and vapour baths, and of the chief Mineral Springs in the United States,—Saratoga, Ballstown—Bedford—White, Red, Salt, Sulphur, Sweet, Warm and Hot Springs, Virginia—Harodsburg, Kentucky, &c. &c. By John Bell, M. D.

THIRD VOLUME.

On the second Wednesday of September, 1831, was published, No. 1, of the third volume of the

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

In addition to the various topics connected with the Preservation of Health, and promotion of Temperance, it is proposed, in the present volume, to enter fully into the subject of

PHYSIOLOGY;

Or an account of the structure and functions of the various organs of the system of

Public Hygiene;

Or the means by which the health of cities and communities is preserved. This will of course, include a consideration of Climate, Localities, and the causes of Epidemics, the Construction of Dwellings, the Establishment of Gymnasia and Public Baths, and of

Medical Police.

A due attention will also be paid to Medical Jurisprudence, or the means of distinguishing accidental deaths from those caused by the wilful infliction of injuries, or the administration of POISONS. The health of Mechanics and Manufacturers, will likewise not be neglected.

TERMS—A No. of 16 octavo pages, is issued on the 2d and 4th Wednesdays of every month, price $1.25 per annum, payable in advance. The postage on the Journal of Health is the same as that on newspapers.

PORTER'S

Health Almanac for 1832,

Calculated generally for all parts of the United States: Containing 80 quarto pages—price 12 1-2 cents. The Maxims and Rules for the preservation of Health, under the direction of the Editors of the Journal of Health.

Porter's Health Almanac for 1832. An Almanac, of this title, has been published, which is, without doubt, the best in the country, and which deserves to be universally adopted.—*Working Mens' Advocate, New York.*

Porter's Health Almanac for 1832, published at the Literary Rooms in Chesnut street, is one of the most excellent works of the kind that we have seen, and will not fail speedily to acquire a very extensive circulation.—*Daily Chronicle.*

Porter's Health Almanac for 1832. This is precisely what its title specifies, and more than a reader has a right to expect in such a publication. It is the grand desideratum of the healthy, the sickly, the young and the old; the valetudinarian and robust epicure. We sincerely admire an Almanac in which, when a man consults the stars or the moon, the tides or the eclipses, he can meet with an apt maxim that will avert a fever, a cold, an apoplexy, an ague, a gout or the gravel. Success we say to the Almanac of Health; it is the best Almanac in the world, and it deserves the best circulation next to the "circulation of the blood."—*Pennsylvania Whig.*

THE EFFECTS OF THE PRINCIPAL

Arts, Trades, and Professions,

And of the Civic States and Habits of Living, on Health and Longevity.

This work is expressly calculated for all classes of mechanics, manufacturers, and field labourers, as well as for the different professions. Cheap edition—price 37 1-2 cents.

All the above works are recommended by some of the first Physicians, Divines, and Periodicals of the United States.

☞ ORDERS, inclosing CASH, will be promply attended to. Any of the above works will be put up in bindings, adapted to send by mail.

TO THE INHABITANTS OF PENNSYLVANIA.

WE address you, friends and fellow-citizens, by direction, and on behalf of the delegates from various Temperance Societies in this state, who sat in convention at Harrisburg, on the 24th and 25th days of August last.

The representatives assembled on that interesting occasion, brought with them very animating intelligence, of the strong impressions of duty which have most happily influenced the minds of their constituents, and others of our countrymen, inducing them to devote their energies to arrest the plague of Intemperance, which has laid waste the moral, and intellectual strength, and beauty of multitudes of many generations past, and which threatens to destroy the happiness, and usefulness, of innumerable responsible beings, in ages to come.

Will it be presumptuous to express the belief, that nothing inferior to the benevolence which proceeds from *the Father of Mercies*, can incline the hearts, and enlighten the understandings of those, who seek to be instrumental in accomplishing a reformation of this kind in our extensive, and otherwise powerful, prosperous, and always beloved commonwealth.

If the motive to engage in this vast field of arduous, and beneficent exertion, be derived from the high source to which we have ventured to allude, all who are dedicated to the service, may be consoled by the assurance, that their disinterested efforts, will not prove wholly fruitless.

It is cause of regret, that parts of Pennsylvania were not reached in time, by notice of the intended convention, and that in other sections where the information was conveyed, the societies did not receive the questions designed to elicit importent facts relating to the causes, and the consequences of Intemperance, and concerning the means which had been employed to diminish that evil habit. Notwithstanding these unpropitious circumstances, twenty-two associations appointed representatives, and two transmitted written communications to Harrisburg.

Imperfect as the returns necessarily were, and notwithstanding the failure in procuring any reports from certain portions of the state, the accounts furnished, nevertheless serve at once to administer gratifying, and painful feelings, to every reflecting mind.

You will learn with pleasure that among the triumphs of principle which already adorn our cause, great numbers of distillers have ceased to make ardent spirit—that many country merchants no longer vend it—that some innkeepers have expelled it from their bars—that hundreds of farmers have entirely abandoned it—that the ablest crews who navigate some of the finest vessels owned in our metropolis, have renounced it—that in extensive ship-yards—smitheries—iron-works—forges—and other mechanical and manufacturing establishments, it is voluntarily relinquished—that several thousand intelligent and independent freemen of Pennsylvania, have become members of associations to discourage, and if possible to put an end to the use of this seductive, and debasing liquor—that other equally estimable individuals of both sexes, are less conspicuously, though less efficiently promoting the same noble purpose—we are sure, fellow-citizens, this intelligence will be welcome, encouraging, and joyful to you.—Yet, on the other hand, it will be sorrowful tidings, that the evidence is abundant to prove, that incalculable, and unutterable private misery, and public evil—that nearly all the crime, and pauperism, which disfigure our character as a people, with their attendant pecuniary demands upon you, are fairly attributable to the overwhelming vice of drunkenness!

The facility, and cheapness with which beverages can be obtained, that are productive of such moral and political degradation, afflicting so severely the commonwealth at large, are subjects demanding your immediate, and unwearied attention in order to the application of a remedy.

Permit us, therefore, to invoke your patriotism, and philanthropy, and urge the speedy organization of societies, and the re-modelling of those which are already formed, upon the plan suggested in the extracts from the proceedings of the convention, which accompany this address. The influence of example, and combined effort in the collection and exhibition of facts, will we are convinced, prove to be the most certain means of carrying this noble purpose to a successful issue.

It gives us much satisfaction to feel authorised to proclaim the deliberate opinion of the body that conferred upon us the trust which we are now endeavouring to execute, that it relies solely for success upon the means which indulgent Heaven may bless, in awakening in the public mind, the tenderest compassion for the frailty, and just views of the dignity, and accountability of mankind in this respect. With reason, truth, and persuasion, for advocates, a hope is entertained that ere long the public judgment will be convinced that the abolition of the crime of Intemperance, is one of the most important civil designs to elevate the character of the state, and to promote the best interests of its people, which has ever been proposed.

It is moreover due to the convention, and to you, that we emphatically announce another doctrine, which received its unanimous sanction, by the most decided, and unqualified disavowal of

every thing like *religious sectarianism* in its purposes, and in ardently advising the friends of the cause, to avoid all measures, which can deserve in the remotest degree, such an imputation.

We have thus, fellow-citizens, very briefly, and we trust candidly performed our service. Upon you it will depend whether any benefits may flow from this humble effort. Ever mindful, however, that human enterprise must prove abortive, without the favour of the *Almighty*, to His especial guidance, and goodness, in this work of reformation, we affectionately commend you.

ROBERTS VAUX, *of Philadelphia city.*
DAVID LAWSON, *of Armstrong county.*
JOHN H. GORDON, *of Bucks county.*
WILLIAM TODD, *of Lancaster county.*
JAMES STEEL, *of Huntingdon county.*
R. N. HAVENS, *of Allegheny county.*
RICHARD T. LEECH, *of Dauphin county.*
October, 1831. BENJAMIN NAGLEE, *of Philadelphia county.*

EXTRACTS OF THE PROCEEDINGS

Of the Convention referred to in the foregoing Address.

Resolved, That this Convention recommend to the friends of Temperance throughout the commonwealth, the following organization of county and local associations:

1st. That all City, Township, Church, and other local associations, become auxiliary to the County Societies, within whose bounds they may be, and duly announce this determination to the County Societies, that they meet annually in the month of March, at which time their annual elections be held, and that detailed statements of their situation, their prospects, and such other information relative to the Temperance cause as they may be able to collect, be then laid before the associations, and that the Secretaries be directed to transmit the same within the ensuing week to the President or Corresponding Secretary of the County Society.

2d. That all County Societies throughout the State become auxiliary to the State Society, and duly announce the same to the State Society, who are requested to acknowledge the same: that they hold their annual meetings in the third week in April, and that their annual report be forwarded by their Secretary to the State Society at Philadelphia, in the ensuing week, in order to be embodied in its annual report.

3d. That it be recommended to all the friends of Temperance in such counties as have no County Society, to meet immediately and form them on the plan here mentioned.

4th. That the State Society be requested to prepare and give extensive circulation to plans of Constitutions for county and local Temperance Associations, and that they endeavour to procure the immediate publication in all the papers of the state of their list of Officers and Managers.

Resolved, That the State Society be requested to insert the following form of a pledge in the plans of Constitutions, to be recommended to Auxiliary Societies, &c.

"The subscribers, deeply impressed with a sense of the numerous physical and moral evils arising from intemperance, do hereby mutually pledge themselves to abstain from the use of ardent spirits, except as a medicine prescribed by a competent physician; recognizing *water* as the legitimate and most salutary drink for all men; and viewing drunkenness, whether resulting from the use of ardent spirits, fermented or vinous liquors, as equally reprehensible, and subjecting any signer of this pledge to expulsion from this Association."

☞ The Editors of all the Newspapers published in *Pennsylvania*, are respectfully desired to give the foregoing a place in their columns.

*** Editors out of Pennsylvania who feel an interest in this cause, are also solicited to give currency to the above address.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, October 26, 1831. No. 4.

In accordance with the intentions expressed in a former number, we shall proffer, in this, some observations respecting the rise and progress of epidemic diseases. We are extremely solicitous that the public mind should be enlightened on this subject, as one in which ignorance, and prejudices growing out of ignorance, have been productive of the most terrific consequences, whether we regard the loss of lives, or the barbarous selfishness which they have called into action. To some of these enormities we have already adverted; others will be mentioned in the further progress of our labours.

Epidemics commence and cease at periods corresponding with certain changes of the seasons. The pestilential period varies according to geographical position, and is anticipated or postponed by circumstances. Of the plague in the Levant, Dr. Russel has observed, that "the winter puts an end to it at Constantinople; the summer destroys it in Egypt."

But if we refer to the histories of the epidemics of Europe and America, we shall find the greater number of them occurring in the autumnal months. According to Dr. Rush, "the yellow fever appeared six different times about the first or middle of August, and declined or ceased about the middle of October, viz. in 1732, 1739, 1745, and 1748, in Charleston; in 1791 in New York; and in 1791, 1793, and 1798, in Philadelphia.

The epidemics which afflicted Gibraltar in 1800, 1804, 1810, 1813, and 1814, prevailed in the autumnal months, and all commenced and ceased at similar periods, or periods nearly similar,

there, and in all places which they affected in Spain and Italy. At Malta and at Wallachia, in the northern part of Turkey, in 1813, the plague began, increased, declined, and ceased, at similar periods; the former having police and quarantine establishments of the most perfect kind, and the latter none. The greatest mortality occurred in both places in the months of July, August, and September. And it may be mentioned here, as a remarkable circumstance, concerning the epidemic of Spain in 1804, that in three of the principal towns, Cadiz, Gibraltar, and Alicant, the greatest mortality happened upon the same day, viz. the 9th of October.

The epidemics in which the lungs and the throat are more peculiarly affected, are also under the influence of the seasons, and appear almost always in winter and spring. There is, independent of the sensible changes and state of the air, a contamination and deterioration of it in epidemics, which subjects persons remote from each other to the same kind of disease. We are told that during one of the epidemics of Gibraltar, "the ships in the bay also suffered more or less, which, as they had no communication with the shore, but through the medium of the health office, places the morbid effects of the atmosphere in a strong point of view; while those in Algesiras bay entirely escaped."

The same thing happened with respect to the crews of the British men of war, lying before Cadiz, in the fever of 1764, described by Dr. Lind. In both instances the disease was milder than on shore.

The Partridge, of twenty guns, quite healthy, was sent into Gibraltar with despatches at the time of the epidemic. On her return to Lord Exmouth, off Toulon, she had a number of men attacked with fever; which the surgeon, in his Medical Journal, states to be of the same nature as that which prevailed on shore at Gibraltar; adding, that "no communication whatever was held with the place, except by receiving a lightning conductor from the dock-yard, where they were known to be perfectly healthy, and some boxes of money were received on board from a gun brig which had brought them from Cadiz. The brig had no sickness whatever on board."

The attack of epidemics is made with a promptitude and violence proportionate to the predisposing circumstances of the person and the concentration of the morbid cause. In some it is so sudden that they fall, as if struck by lightning, and are carried off, as if they had swallowed the most violent poison; in others, the cause is accumulating a long time, and the system is partially habituated to its presence.

Strangers to a climate, other things being equal, are universally allowed to be more liable to the epidemic diseases which occur in it, than natives, or persons who have long resided there.

Not only does this law apply to Europeans visiting the East and West Indies, but to the inhabitants of the country who visit the city, whether they come from the interior to Constantinople, to sicken with the plague, or from the country around Paris or London, to be subjected to a kind of epidemic influence unfelt by the citizens.

The aged and infirm, and women and children, are less liable to epidemic diseases than the young, the vigorous, and robust part of the community.

In countries subject to epidemical diseases, the progress of the vitiated atmosphere is often in an ascertained direction. The fever which in 1809, 1810, and 1811, afflicted the districts adjacent to the Pylney mountains in the East Indies, travelled with a certain degree of regularity in one quarter from north to south, and in another quarter from south to north.

Epidemics begin and cease at determinate periods.

They are sometimes checked by heavy rains, or by a change of wind, as from the south to the west and north-west.

Habit blunts the susceptibility of the system to epidemical influence.

Those first attacked most commonly fall victims, not so much owing to the greater malignity of the air, as to their peculiar habit of body, state of mind, and exposure to want and fatigue; hence the poor are always the first sufferers, and sometimes the only ones in epidemical diseases.

PROPORTIONATE LONGEVITY OF THE TWO SEXES.

Mr. Finlayson, in his report "*On the Evidence and Elementary Facts on which the Tables of Life Annuities are founded,*" particularly insists on the importance of attending to the difference between the mortality of males and that of females. It is a question of immediate application in life insurances and annuities. If we represent the lives of ten males by 100,000, those of ten females will be 109,079, in Holland, according to the old tables of Kerssboom; 111,831 at Chester, (England,) according to Dr. Rice; 107,031 at Montpelier, according to Mourgne; 105,279 in Sweden; 112,050 in Amsterdam, and 103,764 at Brussels, according to M. Quetelet.

In Philadelphia, nearly the same proportion holds as at Montpelier. Thus, according to Mr. Hazard, in the Comparative View of the Population of the City and County of Philadelphia, in that most valuable work, his Register of Pennsylvania,* p. 70, we

* Published weekly at Philadelphia in a quarto form; each number has 16 pages; terms $5 per annum.

learn that the proportion of the males to the females, including all ages from one year to upwards of a hundred, was an average of 100 of the former to 107.50 of the latter. The following additional particulars from the same source will throw additional light on this subject. At the first two periods (from birth to five years of age, and from five to ten years,) there was an excess of *males*—that from ten to thirty there is a regularly increasing excess of *females*, which again diminishes between the ages of thirty and forty, and then again rises between forty and fifty—from fifty to sixty the excess of females becomes very considerable, and rapidly increases till between seventy and eighty—from this period until ninety and a hundred, there is a gradual decrease, but beyond one hundred years, the population becomes as 100 males to 233.33 females, thus showing, that from the period of fifty years longevity is very much in favour of the females—especially in the latter periods of life. The whole number of the males beyond fifty, is 5432, or 1 to 15.37 of the whole number of males; 7738 females, or 1 to 11.60 of the whole number of females—the two together being 7.59 per cent. of the whole white population upwards of fifty years of age. Beyond the age of seventy, there are only 747 males, or 1 to 111.83, of the 83,536 males, and only 1276 females, or 1 to 70.37, of the 89,809 females, or 2023 of both sexes beyond the age of seventy years, being only about 1.16 per cent. of the whole white population.

EGYPTIAN MANIACS.

The insane in Egypt are treated either as beasts of prey, or as saints—holy persons. Maniacs who have fits of raving, accompanied with violence in gestures, and attempts to injure those around them, are chained, conducted to Cairo, and placed in a general depot, in which they are suffered to remain, herded together, without any attempts being made to preserve the least degree of cleanliness in the place, or in their persons. They eat, sleep, and spend all their time in the same apartment: the air of which, of course, becomes insufferably offensive. The only remedy used in the treatment of insanity, is a broth made of serpents, and administered at every new moon to the afflicted.

As to the insane who are inoffensive, or comparatively so, that is, those who do not by their conduct endanger the lives and safety of the people, they are allowed to roam about entirely free. So far indeed from being molested, they are generally treated with signal distinction. They pass throughout Egypt for saints. It is sufficient even for a person to be rather unreasonable or somewhat original, in order to obtain this title. We, in this country, are not

quite so obliging—the crowd with us are content to invest a man, who utters incoherencies, and goes about promising to cure all diseases by a process peculiar, and known only to himself, with the character of a wonderful doctor. This variety of insanity—a true monomania, enlists, in the United States, very general admiration and respect; and its incongruities are certified to, as so many miracles, by professors of law, physic, and divinity.—A present miracle, they cry! and although no body can see it but themselves, the world good naturedly takes their hallucinations as evidences, to show that insanity is wisdom, and impudence noble disinterestedness.

M. Haimont tells us of a young man, "nineteen years of age, belonging to the class of the harmless insane, in Egypt, who was held in great veneration by the people. He was tall, thin, and with distorted legs; he goes entirely naked, and though it rains in that country many months in the year, he has constantly refused to wear any clothes. This whim increases the respect felt for him, and it is said that the Deity gives him the power of resisting cold. He never accepts money, but willingly takes bread and fruits. He courses all day after the dogs, which are also privileged characters in Turkish towns: at night he sleeps in the open street, without being injured by the humidity of the atmosphere. Whenever he sits down, he is surrounded by a crowd: men, women and children all come to consult him; and the women are especially persevering in their questions."

The following anecdote is related on the same authority as the foregoing, as a fact coming under the immediate notice of the narrator:

"Last winter during the month of the Ramadan, I was at the divan of the governor of Rosetta: when there, a *saint* was brought in on the shoulders of a man, who said that an Arab had given a blow with his stick to the *saint*, and that he had met with this latter bemoaning his treatment in the bazar. The governor immediately issued an order to despatch two soldiers in quest of the person who had given the blow; and whilst his order was being executed, he, a man of sixty years of age, had the saint brought up, and overwhelmed him with caresses, gave him sweetmeats, sugar plums, &c., and even went so far as to kiss his hands. The poor Arab who had been so unfortunate as to strike the crazy body, was soon brought in, with his arms tied behind him: he was asked why he had struck this *worthy saint?* and without waiting for an answer, he was thrown down and ordered to receive lashes, until the *saint* should intercede for him. About a hundred lashes having been given, and the *saint* not seeming in any great hurry to ask for his forgiveness, I could not, says M. Haimont, bear it any longer, and I obtained pardon for the

poor sufferer, who was obliged to go and kiss the hands and feet of the person who had just before been lashing him.

"There is another of these itinerant maniacs at Cairo, whose reputation is prodigious. He is an exception to the usual treatment of this class; since, though subject to violent fits of anger and madness, during which he throws whatever comes into his hands at the passers by, he is still allowed to go at large. One day that I passed near his habitual haunt, he threw a stone at me, which very happily only grazed my clothes. This man is forty years of age, strong and well made; he has the reputation of performing many miracles; and though covered with filth and a disgusting eruption of the skin, he is caressed by the women."

APPARATUS FOR PROTECTING THE EYE.

According to a promise given in a former number, we shall now describe the accessary apparatus of the organ of sight.

Immediately above the socket in which the globe of the eye is lodged, is the arch of the *eye-brow*, covered with hair, placed in an oblique direction, and moistened with oil. The use of the eye-brow is to prevent the sweat from running off the forehead into the eye, by directing it towards the temple and side of the nose. The hair of the eye-brow is very generally thicker and of a darker colour in hot, than in cold and temperate climates. The eye-brows probably act also as a shade to the eye when exposed to too great a degree of light; and this effect is increased by frowning. Hence, we almost involuntarily depress the eye-brows, and knit them, when we pass from the dark into a place strongly illuminated. In a weak or inflamed state of the eye, and in all cases where light is offensive, there is a habitual depression of the eye-brows.

The anterior part of the eye-ball is defended by the eye-lids, which act like valves; they are composed of a semi-transparent fleshy substance, covered externally with the skin, and internally with a delicate membrane, which passes from them over the forepart of the eye-ball. To the free edge of each eye-lid is attached a narrow rim of cartilage or gristle, which is hinged, as it were, to the bone at both angles of the eye; this rim gives firmness to the eye-lid, and preserves their expanded and convex form. The edges of the eye-lids are elegantly fringed with short hairs—the *eye-lashes:* the hairs of the upper lid being curved upwards, and those of the lower downwards. The eye-lashes defend the eye, as with a grate-work, from dust or motes, and perhaps from some unknown operation of light; excluding, for example, extraneous rays. When the eye-lashes are plucked out, it always impairs the vision, which is an evidence of the important part they perform in the preservation of the functions of the eye. The upper eye-lid is the only one which is possessed of motion.

The use of the eye-lids is strongly evinced from what occurs when they are cut off,—a savage punishment sometimes practised among uncivilized nations. Sleep is prevented, and from the constant irritation of the light, first the eye becomes inflamed, and then the brain, and the unhappy sufferer expires in the most dreadful agony.

To preserve the transparent coat of the eye in a condition to enable it to transmit the light to the retina, or immediate seat of vision, it requires to be kept constantly moistened with a limpid fluid, or the tears. This fluid is separated from the blood by a whitish irregular body, denominated the *lacrymal gland*, situated within the upper part of the bony socket, near the outer angle of the eye. This gland gives off seven or eight ducts, each not thicker than a hair, which run down on the inner surface of the upper eye-lid, and open near the inner angle of the eye. These ducts convey the tears to the eye, over the surface of which they are spread by the continued action or winking of the lids. It is computed, that in twenty-four hours there is supplied to the two eyes, four ounces of tears. The tears are constantly flowing into the eye, during sleep as well as when we are awake; during sleep, however, a less quantity is supplied from the less degree of stimulus to which the organ is exposed.

The contrivance for carrying off the tears, after they have lubricated the surface of the eye, is one of the most interesting parts of the mechanism connected with the organ of sight. When the eye-lids come together, which they do almost every second, they form a channel which runs in front of the eye, inclining somewhat downwards towards the nose. Along this channel, the sides of which are formed by the ball of the eye and the two lids, the tears, which are brushed from the surface of the eye-ball, flow in the direction of the nose. When they have reached the end of this channel, they are sucked up by two minute openings; one situated on the very point of the angle of each eye-lid, opposite the last hair of the eye-lash next the nose. These openings any one may see in his own eye, by examining it in a looking glass. Each opening is surrounded by a whitish gristly circle, and is capable of admitting a bristle or a small pin. These openings are the orifices of two canals, running above and below the angle of the eye, in the thickness of the lids, in the form of a snail's horns. By these canals the tears are conveyed into a small reservoir, called the lacrymal sac, situated within the bone at the side of the nose, immediately below the inner angle of the eye. From the lower part of this sac a canal runs downwards, and passing through the bone into the nose, conveys the tears into the latter, about an inch above the external nostril. After assisting to lubricate the nostrils, they are carried off, in the form of vapour, by the stream of air, which is constantly passing through the nose in the act of breathing. A part of the tears is likewise carried off by evaporation from the surface of the eye-ball. This is shown by the overflow of the tears in cold damp weather, when the air is less fitted to cause their evaporation.

Along the edges of the eye-lids near the roots of the eye-lashes, are situated a row of minute orifices, to the number of about thirty in each

lid; from these orifices are discharged a fatty substance, which appears to serve a two-fold purpose: it prevents the tears from running over the eye-lid, as any other fatty matter would do, and it prevents the eye-lids from adhering to each other, in consequence of the drying of the tears during their contact when we are asleep. When these orifices become the seat of inflammation, they produce the painful tumor denominated, in common language, a stye.

On examining the eye in a looking glass, when it is turned away, as far as possible from the nose, there is perceived at its inner angle on the ball, a little red fleshy eminence in the form of a half moon. Its use would appear to be to arrest any minute substance that has accidentally been admitted within the lids, and to carry it to the corner of the eye behind its folded edge. In this it is aided by a fleshy substance, in the inner corner of each eye, and exterior to the former, called the *caruncle*, which is studded with a number of small hairs. Both these bodies are likewise useful in directing the tears through the proper channels into the nose. The caruncle secretes an ointment similar to that of the edges of the eye-lids. In some of the inferior animals, particularly in birds, the semi-lunar membrane just described, is capable of being spread at will over the whole front of the eye, performing the office of an additional eye-lid, by veiling the eye from the light.

The apparatus by which the movements of the eye-ball are effected, will be considered in a future number.

MILK.

No substance has been so extensively adopted as a principal article of food, nor held in so much esteem by nearly all nations, as milk. No one can be named less objectionable under every circumstance of health—it being, in fact, equally wholesome, nourishing and digestible, and equally well adapted for the support of the system in childhood and adult age—and, under many circumstances of declining health, it becomes, in conjunction with mild vegetable aliment, the only diet by which disease can be avoided, and the system restored to its former vigour.

Milk differs in every animal, according to a variety of circumstances, in reference to its nature, period of life, food, degree of health, and various other accidental circumstances. But in its general properties, it may be considered, in all animals, as very nearly the same. When first drawn, it appears to be a simple fluid; but after standing a short time, it commences to separate into different parts, very distinct in their characters, and upon the relative proportions of which, its qualities and varieties mainly depend. These parts are an *oily*, a *coagulable*, and a *saccharine watery* matter, well known under the names of *cream*, *curd*, and *whey*.

Milk is confessedly one of the most valuable presents which a

bountiful providence has bestowed upon man. To the healthy and active, it affords far more strength and support than is generally supposed. In many instances, either alone, or in combination with the farinaceous seeds or roots, it has formed the sole sustenance of life—maintaining fully the health and robustness of the system, without any of the disadvantages which result from an excess of animal food on the one hand, or the diminished strength and vigour which have been supposed to be the effect of a purely vegetable diet, on the other. In many northern climates, as well as amid the arid plains of Arabia, it still constitutes the chief nutriment of entire nations; among whom it is equally prized for its effects in counteracting the influence of disease, and in preserving the system in a due degree of strength and activity.

A diet principally of milk and oatmeal was, not many years ago, the chief nourishment of a great part of the English peasantry, as well as of the highlanders of Scotland, and the rural population of Ireland—a race of people who, whether they be considered in reference to their bodily health and vigour, their capability of enduring labour and fatigue, or the cheerful contented disposition of their minds, will be found far superior to the beef-consuming, porter-loving mechanics, and labourers of the English and Scottish towns and villages of the present day. A large portion, likewise, of the hardy, long-lived and cheerful Swiss, even now, find in milk and its various preparations, almost their only food. Incalculable would be the benefits which would result to the working and labouring classes of our country, were they to substitute this wholesome and nourishing food in their families, for the expensive and unnutritious slops, which under the name of tea or coffee, constitutes the chief of their morning and evening meals; or at least, were they, in order to support their system under labour, and to defend it from the effects of cold, heat, and fatigue, to substitute a tumbler of milk for the pernicious dram of ardent spirits, or the too often deleterious preparations presented to them in the form of beer, porter or ale.

For children, milk with bread, or the simple preparations of milk with rice, or with eggs and sugar, forms perhaps the best and most wholesome food that can be devised: it should, at least, form the principal part of their nourishment for the first twelve or fourteen years of their life. In place of being weakly or stinted in their growth upon such food, they will be found stronger, stouter, more healthy, and of a more rosy and pleasing complexion than children who are fed upon meat, and pampered with the delicacies of a well filled table.

Milk, to be perfectly wholesome, should be drawn from sound, young animals, supplied with a sufficiency of their natural food, and allowed free exercise in the open air. The best mode of

using it, is, undoubtedly, in its raw state, and when it has stood about two hours after being drawn; it may be eaten with bread or mush. Milk enters, also, into varieties of food, which it is not necessary here to enumerate, being well known to every skilful housewife.

Largely diluted with water, milk furnishes also a very palatable and wholesome drink during warm weather.

A CHOLERIC MAN.

The following picture from the '*Remains*' of a distinguished satirical poet, is in bold relief and well coloured.

"A choleric man is one that stands for a madman, and has as many voices as another. If he miss, he has very hard dealing; for if he can but come to a fair palling of his fits against his intervals, he is sure to carry it. No doubt it would be a singular advantage to him; for as his present condition stands, he has more full moons in a week than a lunatic has in a year. His passion is like tinder, soon set on fire, and as soon out again. The smallest occasion imaginable puts him in his fit, and then he has no respect of persons, strikes up the heels of stools and chairs, tears cards limb-meal without regard of age, sex, or quality, and breaks the bones of dice, and makes them a dreadful example to deter others from daring to take part against him. He is guilty but of misprision of madness; and if the worst come to the worst, can but forfeit estate, and suffer perpetual liberty to say what he pleases. 'Tis true he is but a candidate of bedlam, and is not yet admitted fellow, but has the license of the college to practice, and in time will not fail to come in according to his seniority. He has his grace for madman, and has done his exercises, and nothing but his good manners can put him by his degree. He is, like a foul chimney, easily set on fire, and then he vapours and flashes, as if he would burn the house, but is presently put out with a greater huff, and the mere noise of a pistol reduces him to a quiet and peaceable temper.* His temper is, like that of a meteor, an imperfect mixture, that sparkles and flashes until it has spent itself. All his parts are irascible, and his gall is too big for his liver. His spleen makes others laugh at him; and as soon as his anger is over with others, he begins to be angry with himself, and sorry. He is sick of a preposterous ague, and has his hot fit always before his cold. The more violent his passion is, the sooner it is out, like a running knot, that

* Alluding to the then prevalent practice of firing a gun or pistol up a chimney to extinguish a fire in it.

strains hardest, but is easiest loosed. He is never very passionate but for trifles, and is always most temperate where he has least cause, like the nettle which stings worst when it is touched with soft and gentle fingers, but when it is bruised with rugged hardened hands returns no harm at all."

CORPULENCY.

The body of every individual, excepting perhaps when he has been long a sufferer from severe disease or deep mental affliction, possesses more or less fat. It exists especially in the cellular structure which is spread out beneath the skin, and is found surrounding most of the internal organs. When in moderate quantity, this fat is of considerable service, and may always be viewed as an indication of health. Its principal uses are in lubricating the solid parts of the system, and thus facilitating their movements; in preventing an undue sensibility of the surface; and by being a very imperfect conductor of heat, in guarding the body from the undue influence of external temperature and its sudden vicissitudes; while by equally distending the skin, and giving a pleasing roundness to the figure, it contributes in no slight degree to personal beauty. Such are the effects of fat only when it exists in moderation; but when excessively accumulated, it is a source of very great inconveniency, and even danger. It then renders the body unwieldy, and impedes the play of the various organs, so as often to incapacitate the individual from every active exertion. But these are not all the evils resulting from extreme obesity. The due action of the heart being prevented by the load of fat on its surface, the circulation of the blood becomes disordered, the breathing also is rendered laborious, and a constant tendency exists to palpitation or drowsiness, and every hour there is danger of apoplexy being excited, either spontaneously or from any slight cause.

Under ordinary circumstances, in a healthy individual, the fat averages usually one-twentieth of the weight of the whole body; but, in many instances it is accumulated to a much larger amount,—often increasing the bulk of the body to an incredible extent. Bright, of Malden, in England, we are informed, weighed 728 pounds, and the celebrated Lambert 739 pounds a short period before his death. Examples are adduced in the German journals, of persons weighing 800 pounds, and in the Philosophical Transactions is recorded the case of a female child, only four years old, that weighed 256 pounds.

With respect to the causes of inordinate corpulency, these are various. Many persons have naturally a peculiar organiza-

tion of the system, which causes an excessive formation of fat, even under circumstances which ordinarily prevent it. We have known individuals, who, with considerable exercise, and by no means an over-full diet, have nevertheless regularly increased in bulk. In the Ephemera of Natural Curiosities, there is an account of a female whose system generated fat even in greater quantity when she lived on bread than when she partook of animal food. A humorous author has given an account of a person of this kind, a worthy lady, who kept adding growth unto growth, "giving a sum of more to that which had too much," till the result was worthy of a Smithfield premium. This was not the triumph of any systematic diet for the production of fat; on the contrary, she lived abstemiously, diluting her food with pickles, acids, and keeping frequent fasts, in order to reduce her compass; but they were of no avail. Nature had planted in her an original tendency to fat that was not to be overcome; she would, adds the author, have fattened on *Sour-krout!* Persons thus situated are really to be pitied, for they are cut off from many of the active enjoyments of life, while they are every moment liable to be sunk into the grave by the very weight of their own bodies.

A very common cause of excessive corpulency is an indolent mode of life in connexion with a full nutritious diet. The active and laborious are seldom troubled with too much fat, even though their diet may not be that of an anchorite. Their bodies may be large and even plump, but they will be withal active, alert, and vigorous. Excessive indulgence in sleep, especially during the day, with full feeding, almost always induces an enormous accumulation of fat. Of the production of obesity by indolence and high feeding, we have a striking example in our domestic animals. When cattle are fed on grass, and allowed to ramble at will over extensive meadows, they present every appearance of health and vigour, but are seldom remarkable for fat; but when tied to a stake or confined in a stall, and fed on oil-cake and other highly nutritious food, their bulk often becomes enormous. "I am credibly informed," remarks a recent writer, "by a gentleman who formerly fattened bullocks, that all those animals which became restless and would not sleep, were invariably turned loose as unprofitable subjects."

In man, a very full animal diet, and the absence of any corroding care, intense thought, or cause of deep inquietude, will occasionally, even when considerable exercise is taken, give rise to an over amount of fat. Butchers in comfortable situations, and not intemperate in the use of ardent spirits, are placed under precisely these circumstances, and we know that they not unfrequently exhibit a very tolerable specimen of *enbonpoint*. Active, daily exercise, very generally, however, prevents undue obesity.

But not so irregular exertions, however active, when followed by long intervals of complete indolence both of body and of mind, and an indulgence to excess in the pleasures of the table. How many an English fox-hunting squire, who, during the sporting season, goes through considerable exertion every morning, and in the afternoon, and all day, at every other period of the year, rewards his *virtuous* labours, by eating, drinking and sleeping—sustaining, likewise, the fatigue of the chase by many a draught of stout ale: how many such find, after a time, "that their bulk has so increased that they cannot get through the woods so easily as they used to do," and that it is "more difficult than formerly, to find a horse that will carry them thro' hedge and ditch, o'er hill and dale." These persons are frequently adduced as fine specimens of robust health. Their health is, however, of a kind, the possession of which no one need envy them.

The habitual indulgence in large potations of ale, porter, and strong beer is, perhaps, one of the most usual causes of excessive corpulency. The porters, coachmen, and inn-keepers of England, who, like Boniface, eat, drink, and sleep upon malt liquor, especially ale and porter, may be adduced as instances at once of its fattening properties, and of the short lives and sudden deaths of those who drink it largely and habitually.

Men, as well as women, towards the decline of life, especially when about this period they exchange an active and frugal mode of living for one of luxurious indolence, not unfrequently acquire that portly form, which in the olden time was considered the especial characteristic of an alderman.

"Laugh and grow fat," is a common adage; and it must be confessed that corpulency is promoted in no slight degree by that ease of body and of mind—that freedom from care of every kind which constitute the real elements of what is popularly styled cheerfulness. Nay, good nature and a rotund person are so intimately connected, that the idea of the one always suggests that of the other. No one who is labouring under pain and anxiety, who is of a sour and morose disposition, or the subject of the evil and depressing passions, need fear the ills resulting from too much fat. But on the other hand, very lively joy, or any intense excitement, however pleasureable; or a high enjoyment of wit and fun, is by no means favourable to the excessive growth of the system. The same may be said of that equanimity of temper and subdued cheerfulness, consequent upon a life of temperance and of active virtue. These, while productive of healthy nutrition, are adverse to the formation of an undue amount of fat.

That good humoured, careless, and contented frame of mind, so intimately connected with a portly exterior—"a huge hill of flesh," and which inclines its possessor to look with perfect indifference upon the schemes and machinations of the restless and

ambitious—which causes him to prefer to all others a life of ease and quiet; constitutes an effectual security against his ever engaging in conspiracies against the peace of individuals or of nations, and altogether unfits him for a stirrer up or leader of rebellion. Of this Shakspeare appears to have been perfectly aware, when he made Cæsar wish, that the soul of Cassius had been lodged in a fatter body, and desire about him such men only as are fat—

"Sleek-headed men, and such as sleep o'nights."

We wish not, however, to be understood as advocating the converse of the above proposition, and condemning all persons who have the misfortune to be of meager frames, from causes they cannot control, as dangerous subjects—"fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils."

On a future occasion we shall offer a few hints on the prevention of corpulency, and the means of reducing it when present.

MEN-BOYS.

It is at present too much the custom to dress boys like men, and to admit them into company, and introduce them into business at a very early period of life. This not only renders them superficial, forward, and conceited, but is very liable to injure their constitutions, by the effects of harassing cares and too close confinement, at a period of life, when the proper development of the system, and the security of its future strength and vigour, are best promoted by gaiety and cheerfulness of mind, and the constant exercise of the body in the open air. Besides, when introduced too early into the world, they are liable to be thrown into the society of a class of men, by whom they are too often initiated into the paths of vice, at an age when they cannot be expected to possess sufficient firmness and strength of mind, to enable them to withstand temptation. Health, character and happiness, are in this manner shipwrecked, and the most brilliant prospects of a long and useful life destroyed in the very outset.

A boy taken from school, at the early period thought necessary to enable him to commence in a few years the business of life, can have acquired very little general knowledge, or taste for literary pursuits. Being confined all day, in studying the technicalities of a profession, or in the occupations of a counting-house, he requires relaxation and amusement in the evening; and hence he has little opportunity for increasing his stock of knowledge. Even should he, by successful industry, accumulate a large fortune, he will be deprived himself, of the advantages and satisfaction resulting from the pursuit of literature, and be unfitted from mixing, with pleasure, in the society of men of highly cultivated minds.

ABSTRACTION, OR ABSENCE OF MIND.

Many curious anecdotes on this subject are related of the Rev. Dr. George Harvest, one of the ministers of Thames Ditton. So confused on some occasions were the ideas of this singular man, that he has been known to write a letter to one person,

address it to a second, and send it to a third. He was once on the eve of being married to the bishop's daughter, when, having gone a gudgeon fishing, he forgot the circumstance, and overstaid the canonical hour, which so offended the lady, that she indignantly broke off the match. If a beggar happened to take off his hat to him in the street, in hopes of receiving alms, he would make him a bow, tell him he was his most humble servant, and walk on. He has been known on Sunday to forget the days on which he was to officiate, and would walk into church with his gun under his arm, to ascertain what the people wanted there. Once, when he was playing at backgammon, he poured out a glass of wine, and it being his turn to throw, having the box in one hand and the glass in the other, and being extremely dry, and unwilling to lose any time, he swallowed down both the dice, and discharged the wine upon the dice-board. "Another time," says the amusing narrative which has been published of his peculiarities "in one of his absent fits, he mistook his friend's house, and went into another, the door of which happened to stand open; and no servant being in the way he rambled all over the house, till coming into a middle room, where there was an old lady ill in bed of a quinsy, he stumbled over the night-stool, threw a clothes-horse down, and might not have ended there, had not the affrighted patient made a noise at his intrusion, which brought up the servants, who, finding Dr. Harvest in the room, instead of the apothecary that was momentarily expected, quieted the old lady's fears, who by this time was taken with such an immoderate fit of laughter at his confusion, that it broke the quinsy in her throat, and she lived many years afterwards to thank Dr. Harvest for his unlucky mistake." "His notorious heedlessness was so apparent, that no one would lend him a horse, as he frequently lost his beast from under him, or, at least from out of his hands; it being his frequent practice to dismount and lead the horse, putting the bridal under his arm, which the horse sometimes shook off, or the intervention of a post occasioned it to fall; sometimes it was taken off by the boys, when the parson was seen drawing his bridle after him; and if any one asked him after the animal, he could not give the least account of it, or how he had lost it." * In short, the blunders which he committed were endless, and would be considered incredible, were they not authenticated by incontestible evidence. Yet, notwithstanding all this, Harvest was a man of uncommon abilities, and an excellent scholar.

Knowledge for the People: or, the *Plain Why and Because.* By John Timbs, editor of the Laconics, &c. Boston: Lilly & Wait, and Carter & Hendee.—This is the first of a series of small tracts, republished after the English copy. It is short, cheap, and easily read; three great recommendations. But a glance at its pages satisfies us that Mr. Timbs has introduced more *whys* than most people would think of; and has responded in *becauses* which are at times more common-place than correct. The part before us is entitled "Domestic Science."—No. 1. The question, "*Why is the manufacture of wine believed to be of high antiquity?*" might have been very well omitted when the answer given is, "Because Noah became drunk with the produce of his own vineyard," &c. The fact ought not to be thus causelessly obtruded on the attention of every nursery reader or gossip. When introduced it ought to be in a very different manner, viz., as a warning against wine drinking, since the patriarch himself fell into the snare which the practice so successfully lays for entrapping and overpowering wisdom and virtue. Another question, "*Why is it probable that wine was the primitive drink of mankind?*" strikes us as abundantly absurd, and as, by implication, asserting an untruth. The answer is in keeping with the question: "Because it is concluded that its name was much the same as is used to express it by Moses, in Gen. ix. 21, from the Hebrew word for pressing out." Then follows the names by which it has been called by different nations, from the Romans down to the present day. "*Why is champagne, except in cases of weak digestion, one of the safest wines that can be drank?*" The fact is not so; and the question which assumes it is idle, to say the least of it. The following displays a criminal disregard for the health and morals of the community: "*Why was spirit called 'aqua vitæ'?*" "Because the old physicians attributed to it the important property of prolonging life." Physicians are here made to echo the language of some insane searcher after elixirs of life; and the public are greatly abused and misled by the withholding a disclaimer, in the form of an opinion of nearly all physicians, that ardent spirit, so far from prolonging life, will, as a drink, materially contribute in shortening it.

* Charms of Literature.

THOUGHTS ON FEMALE EDUCATION. By Mrs. TOWNSEND STITH. Philadelphia, 1831. pp. 31.—Mrs. Stith, herself an accomplished lady, having charge of a female seminary, may be naturally supposed competent to treat with ability of the subject of female education. We have derived much pleasure from a perusal of the present essay, and would freely commend it to the attention of our female readers, as abounding in excellent truths well and forcibly expressed. The subject is examined under the three following heads:—1st, In reference to individual happiness;—2dly, The use and value of the higher kind of education to woman, in her relations in that small and particular circle—of family and friends—with whom her life is intimately connected; 3dly,—Its influence upon the tone of society at large—upon human improvements and civilization. Each of these divisions of the subject is calmly and clearly examined, and the resources which a woman requires "in the pursuits which pertain to the mind, in literature, in studying the investigation of nature, and in communion with the great or the elegant minds of other times," distinctly pointed out.

THE NEW ENGLAND MAGAZINE. By J. T. & E. BUCKINGHAM. Boston: published by Munroe and Francis, in monthly numbers. Price $5 per annum.—It is hardly necessary for us to add our mite of praise to that which has been already bestowed upon this work from various parts of the United States. The names of the editors are of themselves a sufficient guarantee for the superior manner in which it promises to be conducted. Divested of the dry, dull disputations on morals, literature, and science, as well as of the flimsy, mawkish, and common place tales and essays which *adorn* the pages of too many of our magazines, each number presents a sufficient variety of topics and of style to interest the man of letters, who may resort to its pages for amusement in an hour of leisure, as well as that numerous class of readers, in whose libraries a magazine holds an important and, we may add, by no means a useless station.—Messrs. *Carey* and *Hart* are the agents for the New England Magazine in this city.

Literary Rooms, No. 121 *Chesnut Street, Philadelphia.*

PORTER'S HEALTH ALMANAC.—Ladies' Edition. The Philadelphia Gazette, says,—" A beautiful edition of this valuable *annual*, for such it may be termed, bound in red morocco, has just been published. The demand for the work has well attested its value; and we are glad to learn that immense numbers have already been sold."

CATECHISM OF HEALTH.—*From the Pennsylvania Inquirer.*—" The Catechism of Health, recently published by Dr. Porter, of this city, appears to have met with very general approbation, and, it would seem, is about to become one of the standard works for schools. We learn that, by a resolution of the board of controllers, it is about to be introduced into the public schools of Philadelphia, as it has already been introduced into those of other places. We have been requested to give place to the following certificate, in relation to this work:—"

(Copy) ELIZABETHTOWN, N. J.
Manual Labour Academy, Sept. 20, 1831.

These certify, that I have recently introduced into this institution, as a reading book, Porter's Catechism of Health, and find it uncommonly interesting and useful as a class book. I feel no hesitation in strongly recommending to teachers of youth in general, this little work, as admirably calculated to answer the design expressed in its title page.

(Signed) WILLIAM H. BURROUGHS, Principal.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, November 9, 1831. No. 5.

A notice to emigrants, by the society for forming a settlement in the *Oregon Country*, on the Columbia river, reminds us of some interesting facts connected with climate, which are, we imagine, new to most of our readers. One grand peculiarity, not yet explained satisfactorily, is the superior mildness of the climate of the western coast of a continent, or island, over the eastern, or opposite coast, in the same latitude and elevation.

Thus, for example, while all is sterility and desolation on the eastern coast of North America, even as low as the 55th degree of north latitude, and ice and snow maintain a perpetual existence at the 60th parallel, we find on the coast of Norway, or western coast of Europe, ten degrees higher, that all is life, and animation, and beauty.

The difference of climate between the western coast of North America, and the eastern coast of Asia, is still more surprising, when we reflect that the parts of the two continents to be compared, are only separated from each other by a strait, rather more than forty miles in width. Kotzebue, in his voyage of discovery, undertaken in 1815, informs us, that the crossing this short extent of water from America to Asia, was like passing from winter to summer. While all was verdure at Cape Prince of Wales, in America, the opposite point of East Cape, in Asia, was covered with eternal ice. A few hours sailing directly to the west, sank the thermometer from 59° to 43° F.

The general agent of the Oregon Society says, "that the climate on the shores of the Columbia river is remarkably mild

and healthful." A person, ignorant of the difference of climate between the two coasts of a continent, might naturally enough look at his map, and having discovered what spot of the eastern or Atlantic coast was of the same latitude as the mouth of the Columbia river, he would infer the mean annual temperature of the latter to be the same as that which he knows the former to possess. He would be deceived in this case, as in any other in which he would take parallels of latitude to measure climates, without reference to numerous modifying causes; among the chief of which, is the kind of exposure just mentioned.

In New California, on the Pacific ocean, they cultivate with success the olive along the canal of Santa Barbara, and the vine from Montercy to the north of the parallel of 37 deg. N. lat., which is that of the country near the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. The mouth of the Columbia river, in lat. 44° 40′ N. has a mean temperature of 55° F., the same as that of Pekin, in China, on the opposite continent, in lat. 39° 54′ N. Philadelphia, on the eastern side of the continent, is in about the same latitude as Pekin, or nearly five degrees farther south than the mouth of the Columbia river, and yet its mean temperature, 52° F., is three degrees less than that of the latter.

In corroboration of these views, for which we are indebted to the celebrated traveller Humboldt, it may be mentioned, that on the shores of the narrow channels of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles, dividing Europe from Asia, the western coast of the latter continent has a more genial climate than that of the former. In the spring, says Wittman, vegetation is several weeks more advanced on the Asiatic than on the European side, and the productions of the soil more vigorous and of larger growth.

So far, we see that marine exposures to the west appear to give a milder climate; and if we carry our investigations farther, we shall find that the mean annual temperature of places in the same latitude diminish as we advance to the east. Thus Warsaw, the capital of Poland, has a less medium temperature than Amsterdam, on the same line of latitude; it is hotter in summer, and colder in winter. Astrachan, at the mouth of the Volga, is nearly in the same latitude as Lyons. The Crimea is not so warm as upper Italy, to which it corresponds, and although it also presents, equally with the latter, low grounds. Pekin is in the same parallel as Naples, but with less medium temperature, and exposed to much greater vicissitudes.

The interest with which the subject of climate is always studied, as well by the physician as by the naturalist and agriculturist, will justify our indulging in farther details hereafter. We shall then show, that even the mean temperature of a place gives but an imperfect idea of its climate, unless we know the difference between its temperature in summer and in winter.

CREAM—BUTTER.

When milk has been allowed to remain at rest, for a few hours, a thin layer is formed upon its surface, of a substance having a thicker consistence and apparently a more unctuous, or fatty nature, than the fluid upon which it swims. This is the cream which has separated spontaneously, from the other parts of the milk, and from its lightness, has risen to the surface. The proportion of cream in milk, depends on various circumstances connected with the nature of the animal, from which the latter is obtained, its age, degree of health, the food upon which it is fed, &c. The separation of the cream is influenced also, by heat, and by exposure to the air. It takes place more rapidly, and to a greater extent, in summer than in winter, and in a warm than a cold apartment. The larger the surface of the milk, which is in contact with the atmosphere, the sooner and more copiously also, will the cream be formed.

As an article of food, cream, although in the highest degree nutritious, is by no means so well adapted as the milk previous to its separation. Taken in any quantity into a stomach, the digestive powers of which are slow and imperfect, it is apt to produce heart-burn—a sense of oppression, and other uneasy sensations. Diluted with water, or taken in moderation with bread or similar food, it seldom disagrees with persons in the enjoyment of an ordinary degree of health; and even in some cases of dyspepsy, agrees better with the stomach than milk does.

On its first separation, cream is not to be considered as entirely pure; it still containing a portion of the other ingredients of the milk: when these are removed from it by agitation, or the process called churning, the oil appears in its proper form, constituting the well known substance *butter*.

In its recent state, butter resembles very nearly in its properties the unctuous and expressed oils of various vegetable substances, and that of animal fats: it is more consistent, however, than most of the vegetable oils, in consequence of its still containing a portion of the caseous, or coagulable part of the milk. Like those oils, it is subject to the change which is termed rancidity—this change is promoted by free exposure to the air, and the heat of the weather; and it takes place also, much more rapidly the less perfectly the process of churning has been performed, and the greater the amount, consequently, of the other portions of the milk that are allowed to remain mixed with it. By proper attention to the complete separation of these, and the use of salt, the occurrence of rancidity may be prevented, and the butter preserved for a very long time, in a condition fit to be used as an aliment.

The employment of butter, as an article of food, has prevailed chiefly in modern times. It was unknown to the ancient Greeks;

and the Romans employed it only for anointing, or as a medicine, and not as food.

When fresh, and eaten in moderation with bread a day old, butter is an article of diet, which agrees well with most stomachs—especially of those who use daily active exercise, in the open air, and are in the enjoyment of perfect health. With the sedentary, the dyspeptic, and gouty, it is very apt, unless taken in very minute portions, to disagree.

The wholesomeness of butter, however, as an article of food, depends entirely upon its freedom from rancidity; and therefore, whatever has a tendency to induce this change in it, either by too long keeping, exposure to heat, or the operations of cookery, as in frying, baking, or burning, renders it in the same degree injurious to the system. Nothing can be more detrimental to the stomach, than fried, or burnt butter—it renders digestion difficult and painful, and causes various uneasy sensations, which last for many hours. What is termed sick-head ache, is particularly liable to be induced by butter rendered acrid in the processes of cookery, and often in a very short time after partaking of it. Subsequently to a meal, at which any substance fried in butter, or hot buttered toast has been made use of, the person often experiences a singular kind of dizziness of sight, objects swiftly changing their apparent position, and appearing surrounded with luminous points and angles. Giddiness succeeds, with head-ache and sickness. The same symptoms, or at least heart-burn, acrid eructation, sickness and oppression of stomach, are very liable to be produced by pastry, and various cakes, in the composition of which, butter or any other species of fat, enters: by persons who value health and comfortable feelings, such articles will never be eaten fresh. Butter simply melted by a gentle heat, cannot be considered as unwholesome, when taken in moderation; but when it has been exposed to a very considerable heat, or in its fluid state is combined with flour or crumbs of bread, it is certainly pernicious and should be banished from the table of every prudent individual. Good fresh butter then, spread on bread a day old, is seldom an unwholesome article of diet: it is injurious only when rancid, or spoiled by injudicious processes of cookery.

WHOLESOME AND NUTRITIOUS BREAD FROM SAW-DUST.

To be restricted to a diet of saw-dust, would, a short time since, and by many at the present day will still, be considered a sentence of death by starvation: but the investigations of the chemist have shown him, that even from this unpromising substance a wholesome, nutritive and palatable bread may be obtained. Famine is now rendered almost impossible, until at

least our forests have been consumed, by which time we may trust a sufficient crop of wheat and corn will be raised, or the means of obtaining food from brick-dust will be discovered.—But the production of a nutritive bread from saw-dust and chips is no joke—it is an actual fact. The experiments of M. Autenreith, of Tubingen, on the conversion of lignin, or the woody fibre, into food, are thus detailed by Dr. Prout, in his learned paper in the Philosophical Transactions, on the ultimate composition of elementary substances. M. Autenreith takes a piece of wood, and by frequent soaking and boiling, separates from it every thing which is soluble in water. The wood thus purified, is then reduced to saw-dust, repeatedly subjected to the heat of an oven, and finally ground into flour. It requires the addition of leaven; after which, in the ordinary process, it makes a uniform, spongy bread. The colour is rather yellowish; but when well baked and crusty, it is not only very nutritious, but much superior in every respect to the brown bread, made of the bran and husks of corn-flour.

To that class of extremely witty gentlemen who are in the habit of ridiculing every thing which is proposed as a means of preserving health, we beg leave to say, that the above is given to our readers merely as an article of curious information—we have not seen nor tasted saw-dust bread ourselves; and do not, therefore, let it be understood, recommend it in the place of good *wheaten* bread and butter. The mode of converting the process of bread baking into a means of poisonous distillation, has gone the round of the newspapers; we trust that editors will, at least, not pass over in silence, the new source of aliment in saw-dust, to which attention is now directed.

POISONOUS CONFECTIONARY.

In a late English periodical, a gentleman of the medical profession,* has called the attention of the public, to the existence of various poisonous pigments, in several articles of confectionary, the preparation of which, from their peculiar attractions to the younger branches of the community, constitutes, in most large cities, a separate and extensive branch of manufacture. "I am fully aware, he remarks, of the hazardous task that individual undertakes, who ventures, in this country, to signalize such abuses. The wrath of the particular trade is, of course, especially excited, and the sneers and ridicule of the ignorant, are also abundantly provoked." We are persuaded that our readers, however, will feel grateful, for an exposition of the facts, by which the real extent of the danger in question is shown. For the wrath

* Dr. O'Shaughnessy.

of those interested in the concealment of abuses, or the sneers of the ignorant, we have little regard, when public good is our object. From our efforts in its promotion, nothing shall divert us.

A distinguished chemist and philanthropist of Paris, M. Chevallier, in a paper published in the Journal of Medical Chemistry, had previously placed the importance of an attention, on the part of the medical police of the French metropolis, to the subject of poisonous confectionary, in the most striking light. He had seen various accidents produced, by the consumption of comfits of sugar coloured by mineral poisons. Of these, he particularises the Schweinfurt-green, a compound of arsenic and copper; the chromate of lead, and the sulphuret of mercury (vermilion.) He has also found the colouring matter of these toys of sugar, to be composed frequently of gamboge, which, in small quantities, acts often violently upon the stomach and bowels. Notwithstanding the notification of this dangerous practice, in nearly all the Journals of France, the same mode of colouring was persisted in by the confectioners, until at length the council of health was consulted on the subject. This body lost no time in investigating it, and the result was an ordinance of the police, for the suppression of the dangerous practices complained of. In the report of M. Andral to the prefect of police, the colouring substances which are recommended to be prohibited are, in the first place, all those derived from the mineral kingdom, excepting the oxides of iron and lakes of iron, and Prussian blue, all of which, may be safely employed. Of vegetable substances, he recommends the severe prohibition of *gamboge*. *Litmus* should also, he conceives, be prohibited, as well on account of its occasional combination with disgusting substances, as its being sometimes mixed with common *arsenic*, and red precipitate of *mercury*. The most diversified colours, he states, may be obtained by confectioners, from entirely harmless compounds. Thus from the lakes of cochineal and carmine, they can prepare all the *reds;* the lakes of logwood will afford them *violet;* the lakes of dyers' broom (*genista tinctoria*,) &c. will give the *yellow;* the lake of persian grains (*polygonum persicaria*,) with prussian blue, will form a more beautiful green, than that from any mineral substance; and finally, by the admixture of these harmless colours, all the intermediate shades and tints, will be obtained. The papers used for wrapping up sugar confectionary, M. Andral directs, also, to be strictly attended to, since they are coloured with the same poisonous materials, and children are very apt to suck or chew these papers. A member of the council of health, a short time since, snatched a coloured paper of this description from an infant's mouth, and by analysis obtained from it both *arsenic* and *copper*. Pursuant to the ordinance, visits were made to the shops of confectioners, and several poisoned specimens destroyed. Generally speaking, the confectioners

gladly banished from their factories the pernicious materials, and availed themselves of the harmless substitutes recommended in the report.

To ascertain whether the same poisonous materials existed in the confectionary of London, different articles variously coloured were purchased from several shops in that city, and subjected to analysis; of ten specimens of red-coloured comfits, sold for eating, six contained mineral poisons, viz. red lead, vermilion, and chromate of lead; all these specimens, with one exception, were only coloured externally; of seven specimens of yellow comfits, six contained deleterious substances, viz. gamboge, oxide of lead, and Naples yellow; several were stained throughout; one specimen of green comfits contained copper and lime. Those toys of sugar apparently intended for ornament, but frequently eaten, mostly contained poisonous ingredients. The papers were next examined, especially those used for enveloping the sugar drops termed "kisses or secrets;" without exception, the reds were coloured with a preparation of mercury (vermilion,) the yellows with chromate of lead, and many of the greens with the carbonate of copper (verdigris.)

"I cannot be excused of exaggeration, remarks the English investigator, when I assert, that thousands of children are thus daily dosed with metallic and vegetable poisons; in minute quantities it is true; but in quantities dependent for this amount, on the caprice of a workman, or the uncertainty of a machine, and sufficient, in the minutest degree, to produce their peculiar insidious effects, if taken habitually from day to day. Neither are these effects merely lingering; for not long since, an acute case of poisoning, arising from the use of confectionary coloured with a deleterious preparation, occurred in the children of a highly respectable family in Southwark; and on analysis, the articles consumed were found to contain red lead."

On inquiry, we are happy to learn that the demand for these species of coloured confectionary, is yearly decreasing in Philadelphia.—In the mean time we urge upon our confectioners, and the public, an attention to the important hints given above.

CROWDED ROOMS.

In an English work, entitled the Philosophy of Medicine, containing numerous extracts on the nature of *health and disease*, we find the following striking—but, as we have every reason to believe, *authentic*—anecdote:

"A lively young lady, who came to *Bath*, to put herself under the care of Dr. M. Adair, gave a rout, and insisted that the doctor should be of the party. The room was *small*, and the company very *numerous*. He had not been long seated at the card-

table, before a young gentleman, his partner, *fell into a swoon.* The doors were immediately thrown open to afford him fresh air, and the sash lifted up, and both the gentleman who swooned, and the young lady, Dr. Adair's patient, who were invalids, were much injured by the sudden exposure to a current of cold air. How the rest of the company were affected, says Dr. Adair, I had no opportunity of knowing; but my own feelings and sufferings, for many hours after I retired from *this oven*, convinced me of the *dangerous consequences* of *such meetings.* On declaring, a few days after, to one of my brethren, a man of humour, my resolution of writing a bitter philippic against routs, he archly replied: "Let them alone, doctor; how could this place otherwise support *twenty-six* physicians!"

This fact, says our ingenious correspondent, to whom we are indebted for this article, serves to show, better than a thousand arguments without it, the danger of injury from confined air in close apartments. Hence we see that when we invite our friends to enjoy with us the pleasures of the social circle, we may incautiously be the means of rendering both them and ourselves miserable, by the poison of a corrupted atmosphere. Besides, how often do we find hundreds, and thousands, of individuals occupying a room with closed doors and windows, for an hour or two together! Much of the yawning, and dulness, and inattention of religious assemblies, is *often* produced by similar causes, though usually ascribed to a different origin. Crowded assemblies would do well to recollect that they are rendering the atmosphere absolutely poisonous, at the rate of at least a gallon a minute, or a hogshead an hour to an individual; and they are making it, more or less, impure and unwholesome with every breath. This happens too when the atmosphere is the most pure and dense. In hot weather, as the air is highly rarified, and other causes of impurity exist in greater abundance, it is poisoned at a much more rapid rate than in other circumstances; and this should remind us of the necessity of a stricter attention to ventilation.

Our *unenlightened* readers may be edified by the following—

RECIPE FOR A ROUT:

"Take all the ladies and gentlemen you can collect, and put them into a room, with a slow fire. Stew them well. Have ready twelve packs of cards, a piano-forte, a handful of prints or drawings, and put them in from time to time. As the mixture thickens, sweeten it with politesse, and season with wit, if you have any; if not, flattery will do, and is very cheap. When all have stewed well an hour, add some ices, jellies, cakes, lemonade, and wines; the more of these ingredients you put in, the more substantial will your rout be. Fill your room quite full, and let the scum run off!"

SANITARY CORDON.

The world has become, of late years, but too familiar with sanitary cordons, the mention of which, may well call up the blush of shame in the physician, whose profession is made to sanction the necessity of their formation, and carry terror to the breast of the patriot, who sees in them but an engine in the hands of despotism, for the suppression of liberty, perhaps the extinction of national independence. Who, among us, can have forgotten the pretext under which the army for the invasion of Spain, by the ministry of Louis XVIII., was collected on the frontiers of that kingdom; and the solemn asseverations to all Europe, that it was not intended to act hostilely, but simply to keep the infection of yellow fever, from spreading into France. Up to the very moment of the passage of the Bidassao, by the duke of Angouleme, this was the language, these the professions made: but how were they verified by what actually transpired! The contagion really dreaded, was the Spanish constitution, and liberal institutions: the infected persons were the Cortez, and all those persons engaged in the administration of affairs, under the new order of things.

At this present time, we read in the newspapers of an insurrection of the Hungarian peasantry, provoked by the harshness and cruelty with which quarantine, and other restrictive measures, are enforced by the Austrian troops stationed along the frontiers of Poland and Gallicia, with the ostensible purpose of protecting the emperor's loyal subjects from the Russian cholera. To say nothing of the ulterior objects of the assembling of these troops; we have tolerably clear proof, that the haste and severity with which they are made to act the part of agents of the health office, are very clearly referrible to the magnanimous address of the estates of Hungary in favour of the Poles. It is not so much Russian cholera, that the emperor of Austria, and prince Metternich, and the Aulic council are afraid of, as the contagion of Polish enthusiasm in favour of national independence and liberal institutions.

Even could we persuade ourselves, that these cordons of troops were really intended to prevent the spread of disease, we should find abundant reason to prove the nullity, and often the directly mischievous effects of such precautions, begun in ignorance of the real cause of the disease, and carried into effect from misconceptions of its mode of propagation. If they could change the direction of the winds, and the temperature of the atmosphere, we might put some faith in their powers. But when their efforts are confined to either entirely stopping, or greatly trammelling the trade between the suspected country and their own, when the inhabitants on the opposite sides of the frontier are prevented from exchanging the produce of their respective soils, and from giving and receiving assistance in sickness; when all those in the sickly district are doomed to remain there, for better, for worse, breathing an impure air, living upon an imperfect supply of provisions, or upon those which are damaged, and the inhabitants of the yet healthy district, are kept in perpetual agitation and terror by their ignorance of the fate of those on the other side of the line, many of them, perhaps, friends and relatives, we are constrained to admit, that such sanitary cordons are mischievous in their

operation, to say nothing of the immense expense which is to be paid from the pockets of the people, nor of the continual annoyance to which they are subject, by a large body of military quartered among them. But it will be asked by our readers, are these sanitary cordons without precedent or medical authority to sanction them? Here we confess is, to us, the sore point. In common law, we allow it to be better that a guilty man should escape for the want of direct conclusive evidence, than that the innocent should suffer from suspicion and appearances, however strong they may be. But in quarantine law, presumed to be enacted by medical advice, this maxim is reversed. A person *suspected* of being sick with a disease, which it is *supposed* is, or may *possibly* be contagious, is deprived of his liberty, or at least, ceases to be a free agent, and may even pay the forfeit of his life, by an attempt to hold intercourse with his fellow men, and to discharge the obvious duties which are imposed upon him as a member of society.

It is but very recently that we have all read an account of ships from the Baltic, half of the crews of which had died of cholera, having arrived off the coast of England, and prevented holding intercourse with the shore. Although the survivors of these crews were sick, fresh men were not allowed to go on board to navigate the vessels. One vessel had arrived, on board of which the cholera had destroyed the greater part of the crew; and it was even said, that the authorities had it in contemplation to sink the vessel with the surviving persons on board. And these measures were adopted by a civilized and christian people, in the nineteenth century! Men wearied, and sick, and anxious, many of whose companions had been cut off by a violent disease, who had looked to their arrival in an English port, as an event which would insure them comfort, assistance, and sympathy, were treated as worse than pirates—as the veriest outlaws, who had been disgraced by the commission of every crime. And why were they thus cruelly treated? Was it because they were suffering under a contagious disease, and were the bearers of poison and death? They were simply suspected of being in this situation. It was believed by some, and feared by more, but without adequate evidence, that the cholera was contagious. The weight of testimony was adverse to such a belief. But, selfishness taking counsel of its fears, brought cruelty to its aid, and suspicion was enough for condemnation. If sailors are forbidden to volunteer to enter on board a sickly ship, and bring it and the surviving crew into port, for fear they might catch the fever or other disease, and thus run the risk of their lives, pilots ought, by similar argument, to be prohibited from venturing out in a storm to bring a ship in. And it should, on the same showing, be made a penal offence to plunge into the water to save a sinking man from drowning, since he, who volunteers for the act, may either at once lose his own, or have violent disease, fever, &c. from his immersion in the water.

We hope to see a revision of the quarantine laws, in which, those concerned in the task, shall bring with them better knowledge of epidemic diseases than their predecessors, and give us some better reasons for confining individuals engaged in trade and commerce, and for suspending the intercourse between nations, than their fears coinciding with old women's tales and vulgar prejudice.

MOTIONS OF THE EYE-BALL.

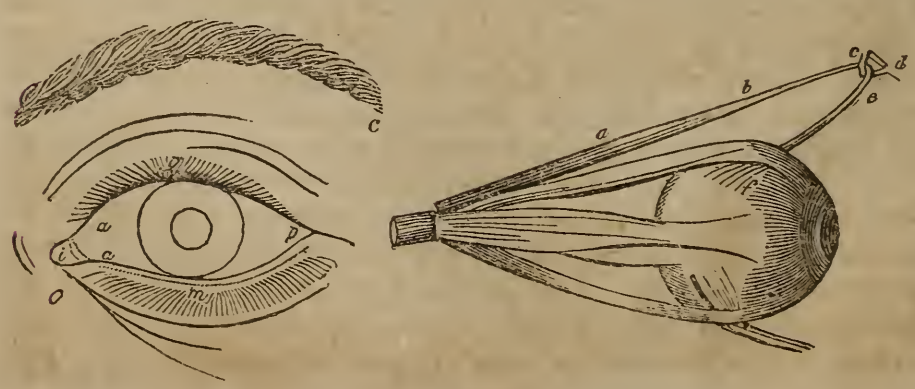
The varied motions of the eye-ball, by which we are enabled, without altering the position of the head, to extend so considerably the field of vision, are performed, like all other voluntary ones of the body, by the action of muscles or fleshy ribbons. There are six muscles appropriated to each eye. Being firmly attached by one extremity to the inner surface of the bony orbit, and by the other to a chord or tendon, which is inserted into the eye-ball, it is evident that when these are excited by the will to contract, or become shortened, they must draw the eye in the direction in which their fibres are disposed.

Four of the muscles in each eye-ball proceed in nearly a straight line, from the bottom of the orbit, to the anterior part of the eye-ball, and are hence termed straight (*recti*) muscles; one being placed above, causes the eye to turn upwards; a second placed below, turns it downwards; a third on its outer side, turns it towards the temple; and a fourth, on its inner side, towards the nose. When these four muscles act together they sink the eye within the socket, and keep it fixed and motionless. When they are called into action in quick succession, they give to the organ a kind of rotary motion.

Independently of the foregoing motions, the pupil of the eye is capable of being turned obliquely upwards, and inwards, and also downwards, and outwards; the eye can likewise be protruded, to a certain extent, directly forwards. These motions are produced by the action of the two oblique muscles. The lower oblique muscle takes its rise from the side of the bony orbit within the internal corner of the eye, and running obliquely backwards, and to the inferior part of the socket, is inserted into the eye-ball near its middle. When this muscle contracts, it will, of course, by drawing that part of the ball to which it is attached towards the point of its insertion, turn the pupil upwards and inwards. The motion of the eye in the opposite direction, is performed by the superior oblique muscle, the singular mechanism of which merits particular attention. It originates far back within the orbit, and running forwards is attached to a slender chord or tendon, which is made to pass through a pulley in the bone beneath the eye brow, near the point where the latter forms an angle with the nose: the pulley is sometimes of bone, but more generally it consists of a loop of cartilage or gristle. After going over the pulley, the chord runs back again, and is inserted into the upper part of the eye-ball, about its middle. The two oblique muscles acting together, cause the eye-ball to project forwards, as in the effort to view a distant mountain, or a ship far in the offing—a most beautiful contrivance, quite unequalled in all our works of art, in simplicity of mechanism, and utility of design.

Connected with the organ of sight there are two other motions, viz. the opening and closing of the eye-lids—or, more strictly speaking, the eye-lid, for, as we have already remarked, it is the upper eye-lid only that moves. The eye-lid is raised by a muscle which originates within the socket, very nearly at the same place with the upper oblique, or pulley muscle of the eye-ball; running downwards, beneath the skin of the lid, it is attached to its cartilaginous rim or tarsus; when it contracts, it draws the latter upwards and within the orbit. The eye is closed by a muscle which arises from the edge of the temple and cheek, near the outer angle of the eye; its fibres then run in an oval direction within the substance of the two lids, and uniting together at the inner angle, are there attached by means of a small round tendon, which may be felt by the finger. This muscle being fixed at its two extremities, its contraction has the effect of changing the oval sweep of its fibres to a straight direction, and, of course, of bringing them, and with them the lids to which they are attached in contact. The action of this muscle has also the effect of compressing the sac, which receives the tears, and, by that means, causing the flow of the latter into the nose.

The two following drawings will render more clear the description of the accessary apparatus of the eye, contained in the present and last numbers. That to the left represents the eye-lids, and their cartilaginous rims *g m*; the row of dots above *m*, indicate the orifices of the sebaceous ducts in the edges of the lids; *c*, the situation of the gland for secreting the tears, the ducts of which open above *p*; *a a*, the orifices which suck up the waste tears; *o*, the situation of the duct, by which the tears are conveyed into the nose; *i*, the caruncle and semilunar fold. The drawing to the right, represents the muscles of the eye. The four straight muscles are those to which no letters of reference are attached. The inferior oblique muscle is seen passing within the insertion of the lower straight muscle; *a*, the pulley, or superior oblique muscle; *b*, its chord or tendon; *c*, the pulley through which it passes; *d*, bony edge of the orbit, to which the pulley is attached; *e*, the chord of the muscle, turning back to be inserted into the ball of the eye at *f*.



We select the following Table, from the valuable work of Dr. Clark, on Climate, noticed in our second volume.

TABLE.—*Showing the Mean Temperature for each month, each season, and for the whole year.*

NAMES OF THE PLACES.	Mean Annual Temp.	Mean Temp. of the Season.					MEAN TEMPERATURE OF EACH MONTH.										
		Winter	Spring	Sumr.	Autumn	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	August	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
LONDON,	50.39	39.12	48.76	62.32	51.35	37.36	40.44	42.64	48.00	55.64	60.00	63.43	63.52	58.80	51.78	43.47	39.58
Edinburgh,	47.31	39.40	44.70	57.30	47.86	40.17	39.54	39.60	45.84	48.67	54.85	59.31	57.74	55.61	48.37	39.60	38.50
Leith,	48.36	40.59	45.75	58.27	48.90	41.09	40.62	40.86	46.37	50.01	55.09	60.36	58.37	56.31	49.22	41.19	39.77
Kinfauns,	47.02	39.82	44.60	56.82	46.80	41.25	39.85	38.65	45.17	49.96	55.61	58.39	56.48	53.43	46.38	40.58	38.35
Dublin,	49.10	39.20	47.30	59.54	50.00	35.42	....	....	....	....	....	61.16	....	....	....	....	....
County of Antrim,	47.87	36.75	46.75	58.16	49.83	32.00	38.75	41.25	49.75	49.25	53.75	60.75	60.00	54.25	51.50	43.75	39.50
Kendal,	46.22	36.16	43.79	57.33	46.53	34.88	38.50	38.19	43.21	50.99	55.80	58.10	58.21	52.70	46.29	40.59	35.10
Alderly, (Cheshire,)	46.80	37.58	45.80	57.10	48.26	36.75	38.50	41.00	45.10	51.30	56.45	57.75	57.20	54.30	48.10	42.40	37.50
New Malton, (Yorkshire,)	47.65	37.79	44.90	59.44	48.65	36.25	38.44	38.51	45.13	51.08	56.40	62.43	59.50	56.06	47.40	42.48	38.70
Oxford,	48.64	37.00	47.10	60.30	50.00	36.90	37.10	42.10	46.70	52.70	58.70	61.60	60.80	57.10	49.40	43.60	37.00
Environs of London,	48.81	37.20	48.06	60.80	49.13	34.16	39.78	41.51	46.89	55.79	58.66	62.40	61.35	56.22	50.24	40.93	37.66
Bushey Heath,	49.82	38.62	47.06	61.48	51.46	37.95	38.60	40.10	47.60	53.50	59.15	64.20	61.10	59.60	50.70	44.10	39.30
Chichester,	49.50	38.85	47.76	60.78	50.64	36.46	40.56	41.22	49.29	52.78	59.12	62.22	61.02	58.67	50.54	42.72	39.54
Gosport,	50.24	40.44	47.63	62.00	50.88	40.44	40.94	42.94	47.00	53.00	61.00	63.00	62.00	58.00	50.20	44.45	38.94
Newport, (Isle of Wight.)	51.00	40.31	49.00	63.09	51.63	38.35	42.00	44.75	46.25	56.00	62.00	64.90	62.38	58.25	51.90	44.76	40.60
Cheltenham,	51.32	40.60	50.28	64.32	50.96	38.25	41.75	46.18	50.50	54.16	61.50	66.33	65.12	59.06	50.32	43.50	41.75
Sidmouth,	52.10	40.43	50.66	63.83	53.50	36.30	42.00	45.00	51.00	56.00	61.00	65.50	65.00	61.50	53.00	46.00	43.00
Helston, (Cornwall,)	52.58	44.51	50.12	62.37	53.88	42.49	44.10	44.58	49.67	56.12	59.95	64.40	62.78	60.48	53.00	48.18	46.94
Penzance,	52.16	44.66	49.66	60.50	53.83	43.00	44.50	46.50	48.50	54.00	59.00	61.00	61.50	58.00	54.50	49.00	46.50
Geneva,	49.89	33.83	48.90	64.99	50.97	32.00	35.50	41.50	47.20	58.00	62.70	66.56	65.70	59.70	50.70	42.50	34.00
Paris,	51.50	38.43	50.40	64.47	52.30	35.60	40.50	43.50	49.60	58.10	62.50	65.70	65.20	60.40	52.40	44.20	39.20
Nantes,	55.62	42.23	53.10	70.73	56.41	40.36	43.37	44.37	52.42	60.57	69.62	73.80	69.85	65.85	55.25	50.31	45.60
Bourdeaux,	56.48	42.08	56.46	70.88	56.30	41.00	....	....	....	....	....	73.04	....	....	....	....	....
Pau,	54.95	41.79	54.96	67.41	55.64	38.89	44.96	46.80	55.79	62.31	62.31	71.73	68.19	65.80	54.34	46.79	41.53
Montpelier,	57.60	44.20	53.33	71.30	61.30	42.00	45.00	47.00	53.00	60.00	67.00	72.00	75.00	71.00	61.00	52.00	46.00
Avignon,	58.20	42.60	57.13	74.66	59.00	42.00	43.50	50.50	55.00	66.00	72.00	76.00	76.00	67.00	60.00	50.00	43.30
Marseilles,	59.50	45.50	57.56	72.50	60.08	44.80	45.06	49.07	....	....	....	....	....	....	58.20	50.40	46.60
Toulon,	59.90	43.30	53.70	74.30	59.00	40.00	44.00	48.00	55.00	68.00	70.00	74.00	79.00	64.00	62.00	51.00	46.00
Nice,	59.48	47.82	56.23	72.26	61.63	45.85	49.00	51.45	57.00	63.00	69.00	73.50	74.30	69.35	61.85	53.70	48.60
Genoa,	60.37	44.57	58.60	75.03	62.94	41.65	47.47	51.07	60.30	64.45	73.50	75.10	76.50	73.20	64.70	51.05	45.60
Baths of Lucca,	55.00	....	....	68.17	....	....	....	....	53.00	60.50	63.00	70.00	71.50	66.00	....	....	....
Camajore, (Lucca,)	58.07	44.70	56.32	71.66	59.58	43.60	45.00	50.00	55.70	63.25	68.25	74.00	72.75	67.75	59.50	51.50	45.50
Sienna,	55.60	40.50	54.10	70.80	57.10	39.70	40.22	46.20	53.70	62.40	67.50	72.80	72.30	66.00	58.30	47.10	41.70
Florence,	59.00	44.30	56.00	74.00	60.70	41.00	45.00	48.00	56.00	64.00	69.00	77.00	76.00	70.00	59.00	53.00	47.00
Leghorn,	60.00	46.30	57.60	74.10	62.00	43.50	45.90	51.70	56.80	64.30	70.60	75.80	76.00	74.80	58.20	53.20	47.70
Pisa,	60.60	46.03	57.20	75.15	62.80	44.00	48.11	51.52	56.30	63.75	70.50	77.50	77.50	73.50	62.62	52.30	47.00
Rome,	60.70	48.90	57.65	72.16	63.96	47.65	49.45	52.05	56.40	64.50	69.17	73.50	74.02	69.50	63.60	58.80	49.62
Naples,	61.40	48.50	58.50	70.83	64.50	46.50	48.50	52.00	57.00	66.50	71.00	75.00	76.50	72.50	65.00	54.50	50.50
Mediterranean, gen. temp. of,	67.11	57.63	65.50	76.25	69.10	57.23	57.60	62.64	63.88	70.00	72.08	76.63	80.05	75.28	69.71	62.34	58.05
Cadiz,	62.88	52.90	59.53	70.43	65.35	51.40	53.73	55.21	59.64	63.75	68.16	70.27	72.86	70.17	67.10	58.80	53.58
St. Michaels, (Azores,)	62.40	57.83	61.17	68.33	62.33	59.00	59.00	59.50	61.00	63.00	67.00	68.00	70.00	68.00	63.00	56.00	55.60
Madeira,	64.56	59.50	62.20	69.33	67.23	59.50	58.50	61.06	62.50	63.00	65.00	70.00	73.00	71.50	67.50	62.70	60.50
Santa Cruz, (Canary Isles,)	70.94	64.65	68.87	76.68	74.17	63.84	64.29	67.17	67.32	72.12	73.89	77.27	78.89	77.43	74.66	70.43	65.82
Cairo,	72.17	58.52	73.58	85.10	71.48	58.10	56.12	64.58	77.90	78.26	83.66	85.82	85.82	79.16	72.32	62.96	61.24

THE PRAISE OF CLEANE LINNEN

WITH THE COMMENDABLE USE OF THE LAUNDRESS.*

THE above is the title of a poem, by the inveterate rhymer, John Taylor, the Water Poet, as he called himself. The epistle dedicatory to the laundress, Mrs. Martha Legge, is an odd piece of composition, full of antithesis and pun—the opportunities for which, were increased by the circumstance of Mrs. Legge's husband being a shoemaker; or, more properly speaking, cobbler. "When I thinke," says the Water Poet, "upon the simpathie and correspondence of both your qualities, I approve fortune for a wise, cunning woman, in clapping such a conjunction together; for hee is a mender and you are a mundifier, or to speak truth, you are both menders; and God knows how many will be hanged before they will mend: your art is to keep even bodies sweet and clean, and his trade is to set our wicked and crooked soales right and upright: hee is a firme and stable man, and waxeth much oftener than hee wanes."

There is a moral running through the following passage, from the poem, which forces one to reflection, despite the quaintness, if not comicalness, of the style, and the doggerel verse. We give the original orthography.

"*Cleane Linnen*, now my verse descends to thee,
Thou that preordinated, were to be
Our corps first cover, at our naked birth,
And our last garment when we turn to earth:
So that all men *Cleane Linnen* should espie,
As a *memento* of mortalitie;
And that a Sheet unto the greatest state
Is the Alpha and Omega of his fate,
As at our birth, *Cleane Linnen* doth attend us,
So doth it all our whole lives' race befriend us:
Abroad, at home, in Church, or Commonwealth,
At bed or boord, in sicknesse, and in health,
It figures forth the churches puritie,
And spotless Doctrine and integritie,
Her State Angelicall, white innocence;
Her nursing love and bright magnificence.
Yet some for Linnen doe the Church forsake,
And doe a surplice for a Bug-bare take;
But always to the Church I bring mine eares,
Not eyes to note what roabes Church-men weares.
Now from the Church let us return but home,
And then the cloth is laid aginst you come;
Though raging hunger make the stomacke wroth,
'Tis half asswag'd by laying of the cloth;

* Dedicated to the most mondifying, clarifying, purifying, and re-purifying, cleanser, clearer, and reformer of deformed and polluted Linnen, *Martha Legge*, Esquiresse, transparent, unspotted, snow-lilly-white laundresse, to the Right worshipfull and generous, the Innes of Court of the Middle Temple, with divers others in the ranke of Nobility, Gentility, and tranquility: your poore and unknowne Poetical Oratour, John Taylor, in humility and servility, craves your Patronages ability, in defence of his imbecility.

For in the warres of eating 'tis the use
A table of clothe is hunger's flagge of Truce,
Whilst in the fight the Napkins are your friends,
And wait upon you at your fingers' ends."

The following is a sad enough proof of the value men attach to clean linen:

"Most men, *cleane shirts*, at such esteeme doe prize,
That the poor'st thiefe, who at the gallowes dyes,
If but his *shirt* is *cleane*, his mind is eas'd,
He hangs the handsomer and better pleas'd."

The Life of a Physician.—There are few medical men who will not be ready to assent to the accuracy of the following sketch. It is drawn by one, who is represented to "have attained eminence in the profession, but who is desirous of dissuading his nephew from pursuing it."

"Of all professions, that of medicine is the most anxious, the most disgustful, the most thankless. Forced to humour the capricious, to soothe the irritable, to persuade the headstrong; to mingle in scenes which even familiarity cannot divest of their loathsomeness; to feel the gnawing of anxiety, when fathers, husbands, and brothers confide their dearest interests to your skill—still more, when with the life of your patient your own reputation lies at stake—and then, when all is done that man can do, to have your services requited with a grudging hand, and unthankful heart,—such is the life of a physician! Nay, even in the eyes of those, who should know how to appreciate your merits, you will find that the discharge of the pecuniary debt cancels all obligation. As if *money* could repay such services as ours!—Remember, Jeremy, I speak of the better (would I could say the greater!) part of the profession: for, as for those whose only object is to earn a living, who would draw the last drop from the veins of their victim, could they but coin it into gold—Nephew! a quack you shall not be! I will bury you with this hand first!

"Believe me, this is no fanciful picture. If you have genius, if you be of an impatient temper, if your character be proud and finely sensitive, I warn you—study not medicine. Yet I repeat: as far as concerns myself, I have no objections; I am willing to instruct you: but weigh well what you do—lest you repent, when repentance will avail you nothing."

New Species of Exercise for Valetudinarians.—An invalid in Paris, is said to have recently recovered his health by riding daily at the funerals of his fellow citizens. The number of funerals which go out of Paris every day, and at which the carriages are furnished by the relatives of the deceased, renders this account not improbable.

Abstinence a Beautifier.—On entering, says the author of a year in Spain, the cottage of the Hermano Mayor, he came to the door to receive me, signed the cross over me, and pressed my hand in token of a welcome reception. Like other hermits, the Hermano Mayor wore a large garment of coarse cloth, girded round the middle with a rope, and having a hood for the head. The only covering of his feet consisted of a coarse shoe of half-tanned leather. Yet there was something in his appearance, which would have enabled one to single him out at once from a whole fraternity. He had a lofty and towering form, and features of the very noblest mould. I cannot tell the curious reader how long his beard was; for after descending a reasonable distance along the chest, it returned to expand itself in the bosom of his habit. This man was such a one as, in any dress or situation, a person would have turned to look at a second time; but as he now stood before me, in addition to the effect of his apostolic garment, his complexion and his eye had a clearness that no one can conceive, who is not familiar with the aspect of those who have practised a long and rigid abstinence from animal food and every exciting aliment. It gives a lustre, a spiritual intelligence to the countenance, that has something saint-like and divine.

The Anniversary Report of the Managers of the Pennsylvania Society, for discouraging the use of ardent spirits, with an Appendix, forming a pamphlet of seventy-two closely printed pages, is for sale at the Literary Rooms. In order that all societies and benevolent individuals may have the ability to circulate widely this Report, the price is fixed at *six and a quarter cents a copy, by the quantity;* and twelve and a half cents the single copy. Ample details are given in it respecting the effects, physical and moral, of the use of ardent spirit, wine, and malt liquors, as furnished by the experience of literati, physicians, travellers, labourers of all kinds, soldiers, and sailors. The direct concern which all classes of society, and every member of a family have in promoting the temperance reform, is distinctly pointed out. The arguments and facts are such as to reach all minds, and dispel some of the most inveterate prejudices against the cause. Useful dietetic hints are given at the same time to the invalid, who may be desirous of improving his health, and prolonging his life.

GREGORY'S PRACTICE OF PHYSIC.

A new edition of the above valuable work, from the last London edition, with notes and additions, adapting it to the Practice of the United States, by Nathaniel Potter, M. D. Professor of the Practice of Physic in the University of Maryland, and S. Colhoun, M. D. is just published by Towar, J. & D. M. Hogan.

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THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss

Vol. III. Philadelphia, November 23, 1831. No. 6.

In the second volume of this Journal, we expressed our intention of giving occasional sketches of the chief means of prolonging life; and in pursuance of our plan, treated briefly of some of the requisites for longevity, viz. *good physical descent; prudent physical education.* Some hints additional to what we have already said on the latter subject, will be of service to our readers—especially mothers, and those more immediately concerned in the management of infants and children.

The first cries of the infant are often responded to by immersing it in cold water; as if it were necessary that the little being should have an early foretaste of the transitions and shocks to which its after life is to be almost unavoidably subjected. Certainly the practice must have some hidden or typical meaning, since it is equally opposed to instinctive feelings and the dictates of common sense. Warm water, a little below blood heat, is the temperature at which ablution ought at this time to be performed; it is more congenial with the feelings of the little stranger, and better adapted to the purposes of cleanliness. The temperature of the water for daily immersion and washing of the infants, may gradually be reduced to tepid or lukewarm—90° to 84° F. In proportion as the child acquires more vigour, and has a warmer skin, the water may be cooler; especially if, in place of the bath by immersion, sponging or washing of the surface be practised. But it ought to be always borne in mind by mothers and nurses, that the weaker and more puny the child, the more necessary is it to protect it against external

cold. If it be the victim to acute disease, with a hot and burning skin, as a scarlet fever, the physician may perhaps direct to have cold water poured on it, or that it shall be immersed in this fluid. Our advice, however, is in reference to the frequent or habitual recourse to bathing, as a means of preserving health, or removing infirmities, in cases in which a physician is not consulted. We repeat it then, let mothers and nurses beware how they subject puny children, with feet and hands constantly cold, to the cold bath; or to what they may call the hardening process, by exposing it half naked—that is, with breast and arms denuded, to the cold air out of doors, or the damp and chilling current of entries inside. These ladies and goodies may think they are following the example of Spartan mothers; but we know, and we tell them, that they are greatly multiplying the chances of disease and death by such exposures. Many are, we fear, influenced by more unworthy motives—motives which an affectionate mother ought to be ashamed to avow—such as a desire to imitate other people who dress their children in this way, and a love of exposing their beautiful breasts and round arms. Do these parents love that their children should have catarrhs, croups, violent colics, &c.? One would suppose they did. Or are they prepared to answer this question? Is it a greater pity for a child to be unfashionably dressed, than to be tossing about in all the agonies of disease, threatened every hour with suffocation, and not unfrequently finding no repose but in the sleep of death? What, we would ask, has fashion to do with children, or they with fashion? Is it not enough for mothers and grown daughters to be the victims to fashion, as when they parade with bare shoulders, and tightly corseted waists, and paper soled shoes, without inflicting punishment on young beings, who, insensible to the admiration of the idle and the silly, find no compensation for their sufferings in gratified vanity? Mothers practice a delusion on themselves, when they consent to receive compliments for the appearance of a child dressed up like a model doll in a milliner's shop. To be consistent, they ought to hire them out to managers of theatres, when a new opera or pantomime is about to be got up, in order to have them figure away as Cupids and Floras and Zephyrs—dressed in light gauze, and exposed to the chill air rushing on the stage. Drilled day after day, and often exhibited at night, they would, during the short time they had to live, astonish not only the friends and neighbours of their doting mothers, but the whole town itself. The pallor of their cheeks could be easily remedied by rouge, which, like short sleeves and low breasted frocks, would also come with the additional recommendation of its being fashionable.

Another flagrant contradiction in the style dress of infants, is in their so uniformly being made to wear caps; as if covering a

head, which has a natural protection in the hair, and which in all after life is so much exposed, were to compensate for leaving the breast bare, which is so sensitive to cold—which has no other means of protection against vicissitudes of temperature than by clothing, and which in after life, moreover, is, at least in the male sex, habitually covered with more than one garment. In brief, it would seem that the head is early covered with a cap, that this part may, after a time, be able to do without it; and that the breast and arms are left naked and exposed to cold and moisture, in order that they may be prepared for a comfortable and constant clothing.

Here again maternal vanity is active. The true reason for the child's wearing a cap, is not that first assigned: it is not that its head may be protected from cold—it is that the eyes of the vain mother may be gladdened; and the admiration, perhaps envy, of her female acquaintances, be excited by the sight of a decorated cap.

The bad effects of this covering to the head, are manifold. It invites, by its warmth, a still greater quantity of blood to a part (the brain) which is soft and vascular, and liable to inflammation from the large amount of this fluid in it. Surely this is no reason why a mother should put on, and a physician allow, a warm cap. The scalp or outer tegument covered by the skin, is tender and irritable, and prone to eruptions in early life—no cause certainly why it must therefore be chafed and irritated by a worked cap full of rough projections. The ears are apt to inflame and discharge, or the skin behind them to be excoriated. Now assuredly we shall not prevent these effects, by excluding air from the ear, and keeping this part closely pressed against the side of the head. In vain does the poor child scratch its head with all possible force; in vain does it cry and toss about on account of the itching, or heat and pain caused by the cap! The thing is pretty, and therefore must be worn, even though the mother should pass sleepless nights in consequence of the child's fretfulness, or the doctor have to be sent for to devise means of composing the little dear.

We have not yet adverted to the string which passes under the chin, and which is at times tied, or becomes, so tight by the child throwing its head back, as to act the part of a ligature, and give the poor little sufferer the sensation of the first stage of hanging.

In our professional experience, we have often found it impossible to cure cases of diseased scalp, and sore ears, so long as caps were worn. These left off, the sores and breakings out soon disappeared.

On the tight body dress of children, and on other errors connected with their physical education, we shall offer some additional comments hereafter.

RATE OF GROWTH OF THE HUMAN BODY.

M. Quetelet of Brussels, has investigated with considerable care, the law by which the gradual development of the human body in stature, is governed. The results of his labours are contained in a memoir, communicated to the Academy of Brussels, and published in the number of the *Annales d'Hygiene Publique* for July, of the present year. The facts accumulated by M. Quételet, establish the following general propositions:

1. The body of man increases the most rapidly in height, immediately after birth; the infant growing in the first year about two decimetres; nearly eight inches.

2. The growth of the infant diminishes after the first year, in proportion as it advances towards the age of four or five years, at which period it attains the maximum of its *probable* existence. Thus, during the second year after birth, its growth is but half that of the first year; and during the third year, only about one third.

3. After the fourth or fifth year, the increase in height progresses with considerable uniformity, until nearly the age of fourteen years; the annual augmentation of stature being about fifty-six millimetres, or about two inches and one fifth.

4. After the fourteenth year, the height still continues to increase, but very slowly; thus, from sixteen to seventeen years, the increase is four centimetres, $1\frac{7}{10}$ inches; in the two subsequent years, the increase is two and a half centimetres only, or not quite an inch.

5. The entire growth of the human body does not appear to be completed, even at twenty-five years.

The foregoing propositions relate simply to the positive increase; if we consider the annual increase in reference to the existing height, we shall find that the infant has acquired, the first year after birth, two fifths of its height; in the second year, the seventh; the third year, the eleventh; the fourth year, the fourteenth; the fifth year the fifteenth; the sixth year the sixteenth, and so on: so that the relative increase gradually diminishes from birth.

The increase of height in females, though somewhat less than that of the males, is governed by the same laws, until she arrives about midway between eleven and twelve years, when it declines much more rapidly than in the male.

The limits in the growth of the two sexes are nearly equal.

1. Because the female is not so tall at birth as the male.

2. Because in her, the complete development of the body sooner terminates; and

3. Because her annual increase in height, is less than that of the male.

The height of the inhabitants of cities, at the age of nineteen years, surpasses by two or three centimetres, $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch, or $1\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, that of the inhabitants of the country.

Young persons in easy circumstances, engaged in study, are in general above the medium height.

Between the fifth and sixteenth years, the annual increase is very regular, and is one-twelfth of that which takes place during the months immediately preceding birth.

The growth of the body for several months anterior to birth, increases according to the same law which marks the successive increase, as the age of the individual advances subsequent to birth.

It is proper to remark, that most of the facts upon which the foregoing results are predicated, have reference exclusively to Brussels, and the province of Brabant.

NIGHT VISION.

Among the strange affections to which the sense of vision is liable to be subjected from a variety of causes, is what is termed night-sight.—Vision being obscure or painfully acute during the day, or in a bright light, but clear and distinct in a deep shade or the dusk of the evening. The disease is dependant upon a morbid irritability of the nervous coat of the eye, produced either by a sudden exposure to a stronger glare of light than that to which the eye has been accustomed, or from a deficiency of the black paint by which the middle coat of the eye is lined. From the first mentioned cause, this affection of the sight is common to such persons as live almost constantly in dark caverns or gloomy chambers, as mines, dungeons, or other prisons, and in houses from which the light of the sun is in a great measure excluded in consequence of their location, or improper construction—it is met with likewise in those who have recently been operated on for cataract—the presence of which had prevented the light from falling on the nervous coat of the eye. In these cases the disease is very generally accompanied with a perpetual winking of the eye-lids, from the sympathy which prevails between these and the nerve of vision.

Ramazzini, in his work on the diseases of artizans, asserts that the complaint under consideration, is common to the peasants of Italy who are employed in agriculture; but in whom he is able to trace no other peculiarity, than a considerable enlargement of the pupil. It is not difficult, perhaps, remarks a late writer,* to assign a reason for such an affection among these people,

* Dr. Good.

though Ramazzini is silent on the subject. The sky of Italy is peculiarly bright, its atmosphere peculiarly clear, and its temperature relaxingly warm. The peasants of Italy, therefore, are exposed to the joint operation of almost every cause that can produce habitual relaxation of the iris, and irritability of the retina, or nervous coat of the eye. And we find these causes acting with renewed power at the time when the disease chiefly makes its attack, which we are told is on the return of spring, or rather at the vernal equinox, when a double flood of day breaks upon them. And such is the dimness of sight it produces, that the peasants lose their way in the fields during the glare of noon; but on the approach of night, they are again able to see distinctly. It is hence necessary for them to keep for a few weeks in the shade, or in comparative darkness, till the eyes recover their proper tone—when the ordinary powers and distinctness of vision again return. The glare of the sun in tropical regions, and especially where it is reflected from a bright chalky soil, has often produced the same effect.

A deficiency of the black pigment of the eye is occasionally found in persons of a very fair complexion and light hair; and, as the nervous coat of the eye is in consequence deprived of the natural shade by which the light is softened in its descent upon this very sensible membrane, we can easily understand the cause of its morbid irritability. Albinoes, in whom the black colouring matter of the eye is entirely wanting, are peculiarly subject to the disease in question. They, in fact, never enjoy pleasant and distinct vision, excepting in an obscure light, or on the approach of evening. In old persons the same deficiency is sometimes observed, but unattended with painful vision—the sensibility of the optic nerve having become in some degree obtuse. The disease is a very common symptom of various degrees of inflammation of the eye; and whenever, from any cause, the irritability of the optic nerve is increased. Debauchery and numerous species of excess, seldom fail to occasion night-sight, more or less strongly marked. The disease often terminates in complete blindness.

Acuteness of night vision is natural to various animals that prowl in the dark, as cats, lynxes, lions, and, perhaps, all the feline genus. These guard their eyes from the pain produced by broad day light, by a closer contraction of the pupil than the human subject is able to effect; expanding it gradually as the night shuts in, till by the extent of the expansion, they are able to see in the dark much better than mankind. Owls, bats, cockroaches, moths, and many other insects, have a similar power.*

* Study of Medicine, vol. iv. page 201.

THE SICK CHAMBER.

That the violence of a disease is not to be controlled, nor its fatal termination arrested, simply by the administration of medicine, while no attention is paid to the effects of external agents, upon the system of the patients, is a proposition, of the truth of which, every experienced practitioner of the healing art is fully aware; unfortunately, it is one, however, with the importance of which, the public at large are not sufficiently acquainted; and hence, we find it but too often overlooked by the sick, their friends, and attendants.

It is in vain that the physician exerts his utmost skill in behalf of an individual, labouring under disease, if the air which the latter breathes, his food and drinks, his clothing, the condition of his person, and the apartment he occupies, as to cleanliness, and various other circumstances, in relation to him, be such as are calculated to counteract the remedies administered, and to keep up, or increase his disease. Hence, the office of a nurse to the sick, is one of no mean importance: a correct acquaintance with, and diligent performance of its duties, being calculated, in no slight degree, to relieve the sufferings, shorten the confinement, and even insure the life of those committed to the nurse's care.

It is our intention to enter from time to time, very fully into the consideration of these duties. At present, we shall present, as intimately connected with this subject, some observations in relation to chambers appropriated to the sick. We do not, however, expect that every one will have it in his power to follow strictly all the directions we shall lay down. But by describing such an apartment as should always be preferred, when circumstances will permit, each one will be able to make choice of one as nearly resembling it as possible.

The room occupied by the sick, should be high and spacious. The air in a large apartment can be preserved much longer pure than in a small one, while at the same time, proper attention can at all times be paid to ventilation, without the danger of subjecting the patient to a draft of cool air. In all diseases, especially those attended with fever, the chance of the patient's recovery is greatly increased in a room of ample dimensions,—the confined, hot, and impure air of a small apartment, being peculiarly prejudicial to the sick. It is all important that the room be kept strictly clean, and free from damp. To insure perfect cleanliness, the walls should be plastered and white-washed with lime; papered, or wainscoated walls are unfitted for sleeping apartments, and particularly so, for one occupied by the sick, it being nearly impossible to prevent a constant accumulation of filth upon any save a simply plastered wall. As well for the sake of cleanliness, as to enlarge, as much as possi-

ble, the dimensions of the room, it should contain no more furniture than is absolutely necessary—we do not mean that this necessity should be determined by the requirements of fashion or pride, but strictly that every article of furniture that can possibly be dispensed with, should be removed. The propriety of carpets and window curtains in a sick chamber, is very doubtful; they who cannot command them, therefore, need not regret their absence. The latter may be thought necessary, in order to darken the room; but when a diminution of light is desirable, it can be caused by closing, either partially, or entirely, the window shutters; or when these are wanting, by a simple screen.

The apartment, we have said, should be dry; hence, one elevated some distance from the ground, should be made choice of; the windows of which are so situated, as to admit, in winter, the sun's rays some hours every day. Free ventilation, which is indispensablefor the maintenance of a pure and wholesome air in the room, will likewise tend to preserve it dry. To insure this, the windows must be kept open, in summer, all day, excepting in very damp, or rainy weather, and closed before night. In winter, also, the door of the chamber should be opened daily a short time, or if by this means sufficient ventilation is not produced, a window must be raised; care being taken, however, at the same time, that the patient be in bed, and so covered, or screened, as to be protected from the current of cold air, thus admitted into the room.

The proper temperature at which the room should be kept in winter, will depend, in some measure, upon the nature of the disease under which the patient labours, and will, of course, be directed by the physician. Whatever this temperature may be, it should be kept up with as little variation as possible; the patient will be sure to suffer, if at one period the heat is too great, and at another too low. An open fire is the best, perhaps, for a sick chamber, as in this manner, a degree of ventilation is always maintained; care should be taken, however, that no smoke escape into the room.

Perfect quietude, is, in most diseases, of very great importance; hence the propriety of selecting for the sick a chamber remote from the street, and of guarding against any unnecessary noise or bustle in or around it. The conversation of friends and visiters either among themselves in a sick room, or with the patient, is in most cases improper. It is always a good rule, excepting when the disease is one of a trifling character, not to admit any individuals into this apartment, excepting the immediate relatives of, and necessary attendants upon, its occupant. The vitiation of the air, and disturbance produced by numerous visiters—the indiscreet predictions relative to the fate of the patient too often made in his hearing; and the frequent officious,

and often ill-natured interference on their part, with the directions of the medical attendant, have in many cases tended to prolong the disease, or even have caused it to terminate fatally—when, had the intrusion of visiters been guarded against, the life of the patient might have been saved.

TRADES PRODUCING CONSUMPTION.

On a former occasion, we presented to our readers a sketch, translated from a French scientific journal, of some of the results obtained by M. De Chateauneuf, in his investigations into the trades by which consumption is most liable to be produced.* Since then, we have received the original memoir of that gentleman, from which we copy the following table, presenting the number of deaths from consumption, which took place among the individuals of those professions most favourable to the production of the disease, admitted as patients into four of the Parisian hospitals, viz. L'Hotel-Dieu, La Charite, La Pitie, and L'Hospice Cochin, during ten years, from 1817 to 1827. From this the reader will be enabled to judge more correctly of the relative insalubrity, in this respect, of all the trades which predispose to consumption, and to correct one or two errors which occur in our former abstract of the labours of M. De Chateauneuf, and which are to be credited to the foreign journal from which that abstract was obtained.

1. Occupations which expose the lungs to the action of an atmosphere loaded with vegetable dust:

	Males.	Deaths.	Proportion.	Females.	Deaths.	Proportion.
Starch makers,	98	1	1.02.			
Bakers,	2702	56	2.07.			
Coalmen,	375	14	3.73.			
Forts de la Halle,	246	6	2.43.			
Rag pickers,	590	5	0.84.	237	4	1.68.
Workers in cotton,	319	6	1.88.	882	24	2.72.
Thread winders,				263	9	3.42.
Spinners,	594	14	2.35.	1173	19	1.61.

Total number of males admitted of this class, 4924, of whom 102 died of consumption, or 2.07 per cent.

Total number of females admitted of this class, 2555, of whom 56 died of consumption, or 2.19 per cent.

2. Occupations which expose the lungs to the action of an atmosphere loaded with mineral particles:

Stone quarriers,	887	18	1.46.
Masons and labourers,	4071	90	2.22.
Stone cutters,	162	2	1.25.
Plaisterers,	158	4	2.53.
Lapidaries,	551	5	0.90.

Total number of this class admitted, 5829, all males, of whom 114 died of consumption, or 1.95 per cent.

* See vol. II. page 265.

3. Occupations which expose the lungs to the action of an atmosphere loaded with animal dust:

	Males.	Deaths.	Proportion.	Females.	Deaths.	Proportion.
Brush makers,	283	10	3.53.	103	8	7.76.
Carders of wool and hair,	129	4	3.10.	451	11	2.43.
Hatters,	983	47	4.78.	130	1	0.55.
Feather workers,	39	3	7.69.	61	7	11.47.

Total number of males admitted of this class, 1434, of whom 64 died of consumption, or 4.46 per cent.

Total number of females admitted of this class, 795, of whom 27 died of consumption, or 3.39 per cent.

4. Occupations which expose the lungs to the action of an atmosphere loaded with hurtful vapours:

Gilders,	545	29	5.32.	285	16	5.61.
Painters and Ornamenters,	2160	47	2.17.			
Fumigaters,	389	13	3.34.			

Total number of males admitted of this class, 3094, of whom 89 died of consumption, or 2.87 per cent.

Total number of females admitted of this class, 285, of whom 16 died of consumption, or 5.61 per cent.

5. Occupations which expose the body, and particularly the feet, to the action of damp:

Bleachers,	218	4	1.83.	2775	125	4.50.

6. Occupations in which the muscles of the chest and arms are subjected to a constant and fatiguing exercise:

Weavers,	935	20	2.13.	163	3	1.84.
Gauze makers,	251	8	3.18.	253	8	3.16.
Carpenters,	268	4	1.49.			
Joiners,	1716	53	3.08.			
Blacksmiths, &c.	214	2	0.93.			
Locksmiths,	668	5	0.74.			
Water carriers,	373	9	2.41.			
Stone sawyers, &c.	702	8	1.13.			

Total number of males admitted of this class, 5127, of whom 109 died of consumption, or 2.12 per cent.

Total number of females admitted of this class, 416, of whom 11 died of consumption, or 2.64 per cent.

7. Occupations in which the muscles of the chest and arms are subjected to constant motion, while the body is maintained in a bent posture:

Scriveners,	908	43	4.73.			
Jewellers,	715	46	6.43.	39	4	13.33.
Tailors,	1048	49	4.67.	1069	49	4.58.
Shoemakers,	1818	78	4.29.			
Fringe and lace makers,	426	20	4.69.	534	25	4.68.
Cutters of crystal,	244	15	6.14.			

	Males.	Deaths.	Proportion.	Females.	Deaths.	Proportion.
Polishers,	270	12	4.44.	548	21	3.83.
Shoe binders,				397	22	5.54.
Embroiderers,				593	51	8.60.
Seamstresses,				5392	296	5.48.
Flower makers,				357	31	8.68.
Bone lace makers,				258	16	6.20.
Glove makers,				402	26	6.46.
Menders,				540	33	6.11.

Total number of males admitted of this class, 5429, of whom 263 died of consumption, or 4.84. per cent.

Total number of females admitted of this class, 10,129, of whom 574 died of consumption, or 5.66 per cent.

Total number of males of all the foregoing classes admitted, 26,055, of whom 745 died of consumption, or 2.85 per cent.

Total number of females 16,955 ; deaths 809, or 4.77 per cent.

Total number of individuals of both sexes 43,010, among whom the deaths by consumption were 1554.

Proportion of deaths by consumption to whole number of patients who were admitted, 3.61 per centum.

FLANNEL NEXT TO THE SKIN.

The approaching season not merely invites, but forces us all, of whatever degree, from the wood sawyer and teamster, up to the indolent man of wealth, and the dignitaries of the state, to attend to the texture and fashion of garments best calculated to protect us against the inclemencies of the winter—the bleak north, and chilling easter, with sleet, or snow, or rain. General experience is in favour of flannel, or other woollen clothes, as the best protectors against cold—that is, as among the worst conductors of heat. There are found, however, persons of some observation, who protest against the use of flannel worn next the skin. Our own opinions on this subject are so fully expressed in the chapter on "the Skin," in Dr. Bell's late work on "Baths and Mineral Waters,"* that we shall, without further preface, give the words of this writer, as follows:

"When we reflect," says Dr. Bell, "on the great number and variety of diseases, which directly originate in suppressed perspiration and atony of the skin, we feel naturally alive to the best means of preventing a state of the system so productive of disastrous effects. These means are threefold:—first, by clothing; secondly, by the gradual and systematic exposure to the atmo-

* In two parts.—Part I., a full Account of the Hygienic and Curative powers of *cold, tepid, warm, hot,* and *vapour* baths, and of *sea* bathing.—Part II., a History of the chemical composition and medicinal properties of the chief Mineral Springs of the United States, and of Europe; pp. 532.—Philadelphia: Literary Rooms, 121 Chesnut street. Henry H. Porter, proprietor.—1831.

spheric air; and thirdly, by the use of baths of suitable temperatures. These three modes are closely connected, since we cannot well speak of the effects of one without having all the data furnished by the others.

Of Clothing. Our remarks in this place will be chiefly on the kind of clothing to be worn next the skin. The use of flannel in cold and variable climates has been very generally recommended as the best means of protection for the inhabitants against the effects of extremes and sudden vicissitudes of temperature. There are not wanting, however, physicians of experience and observation, who reprobate the practice as effeminate and debilitating, and productive of some of the ills it was intended to cure or prevent. By analysing these contradictory opinions, we discover, that when authors come to explain their views in detail, there is actually less discrepancy than at first appears. The use of a flannel shirt next the skin throughout the year—winter and summer—night and day, has been declared to be inimical to health; and certainly, as a general practice, even among invalids, is not to be recommended. The body, thus constantly stimulated by a woollen garment, no longer derives that protection in extreme and sudden states of cold and moisture which was promised for it. In summer, it increases unduly the discharge of sweat, already too great by the mere heat of the season, and thus contributes to throw this part into a state of languor and debility, which illy prepares it for the wintry cold. There are, moreover, persons whose skin is so habitually hot and sensitive, as not to tolerate the application of flannel to this surface. Sometimes, cutaneous eruptions forbid its use, since they are either kept from being cured or are aggravated thereby. At other times, the sensations of inward heat and thirst are augmented by the irritation of the skin maintained by this cause; hence, in febrile diseases, the physician most generally allows the patient to discontinue the flannel. The manner in which a woollen garment produces its effect, is twofold:—1. By numerous points it acts, as it were, the part of a flesh brush, and keeps up a mild irritation of the cutaneous surface. 2. By its being a bad conductor of caloric, it preserves the temperature of the body at nearly a uniform degree: it prevents, in cold weather, the escape of the animal heat into the surrounding air; and, in summer, or when the body is exposed to the sun's rays, it prevents the transmission of the external heat of the air to the skin. Woollen cloth is, moreover, a bad absorbent; and its interstices not being close, its pores are freer for the passage of the various exhalations from the skin—so that evaporation from this surface is not arrested, and it remains cool. This last property is of course only to be expected in flannel which is not very fine,

and in that which has not been fulled, as it were, and made thick and hard by repeated washings.

According to these views, a person may be allowed to dispense with wearing flannel, whose circulation and vital functions, generally, are vigorous, and whose skin is habitually warm—that is, developes animal heat largely. This state of things does not necessarily imply, though it is often accompanied with robustness of frame. Where, on the other hand, the circulation is languid, the skin, and especially that of the extremities, frequently cold, and digestion slow, flannel is of the first necessity during nearly eight months of the year in our climate. Independently of these considerations, if the employment of a person be such as to expose him to the sudden transition of temperature, as in rushing from a hot workshop or foundry to the open air, or if the labour or exercise out of doors be otherwise so excessive as to cause sweating and fatigue, without the possibility of change of linen, dry rubbing, and passing into a warmer medium, then had flannel better be worn. But in none of these cases is it necessary to wear it during the night in bed, provided a person be furnished with sufficient covering, and be not frequently required to go out into another apartment, or into the open air in a hurry, without due time being allowed for putting on suitable outer garments.

In a disordered state of the body, as in catarrh, asthma, rheumatism, and bowel disease, it is necessary that flannel should be worn next the skin; at least, the omission would be attended with risk. It is almost impossible to procure permanent relief from these and various other maladies, without the functions of the skin, and, of course, its equable temperature, being properly sustained. For this purpose, flannel, as the inner garment, seems well adapted; but, to be completely so, its use must be accompanied with the following conditions: 1. That it be regularly and at short intervals changed, its use during the night, with the exceptions already indicated, being dispensed with. 2. That it be not tight to the body, nor of a texture firm and thick by much washing. 3. That friction of the skin, with a coarse towel or flesh brush, be practised night and morning; and sponging this surface with cold or tepid water, according to the season and the temperature of the skin, be had recourse to, before friction, every morning, or, at least, on alternate days. In cases where the skin is not of uniform warmth, and is readily chilled, it will be sufficient to use the sponge well squeezed, and just moist, or perhaps damp; renewing, of course, its immersion in water, and subsequent squeezing, several times during the operation of sponging the skin with it. This last condition can be carried into effect by most persons: but there are some who invariably suffer during the colder months, from even sponging their surface with water, of the

temperature of the air, or under the degree of decided warmth. To such, a warm bath, twice a week, will be advantageous. But we are anticipating in this last particular, and shall conclude the subject of flannel clothing, by noticing some of the objections brought against its use.

It is alleged, that the wearing of flannel is apt to cause excessive and exhausting perspiration; but this objection can only apply to the practice being continued during the summer season, or in hot climates. Flannel is also said to render the skin too delicate and susceptible to changes in the weather. Now, this argument is founded upon a false theory, which supposes that an uniformly sustained temperature enervates; and, that to bear cold, we must be much exposed to it, than which, as has been already shown, nothing is more fallacious. If the stimulus of the flannel be called for by any of the circumstances already mentioned, any excess of stimulation, or of heat of the skin, in consequence, is readily prevented by discontinuance of this kind of garment at night, when the person is in bed, and by the practice of sponging, as just directed. In this way, also, is the body safely inured to changes of temperature, to which it must, of necessity, be exposed, in the various concerns of life. Excessive irritation of the skin, or even cutaneous eruptions in persons where this part is very sensitive, may be obviated by lining the flannel with fine muslin. This is a preferable plan to wearing flannel over the shirt, and may be had recourse to in all cases where, at the same time in which we want to guard against sudden transitions of temperature, we would avoid the inconveniences attributed to flannel next the skin. The objection made to flannel on account of its being so long worn without change, applies, not to the article, but to neglect of personal cleanliness: and it is also urged, under the supposition of the use of it being unremitted during summer, and at night when in bed. If, from particular causes, a flannel garment be worn at night time, it ought to be replaced invariably by another in the morning, and the first hung up to air during the day. When I recommend that it should be dispensed with by a person in bed, I ought to add that, it is often proper to wear, at this time, a jacket with sleeves, made of coarse muslin, under the common shirt, and next the skin, in place of the flannel. This substitute is the more necessary to invalids who are liable to be alternately chilled and sweated in the night, and on whom the flannel would be more apt to produce this last effect. I may add, that, even the robust, who disdain to wear flannel at all, would find their account in wearing the muslin jacket with sleeves, under their linen shirts, if they are much given to athletic exercises, or readily excited to sweat. In the summer season, this will be found a good substitute for the flannel which had been worn next the skin during the winter."

SUICIDE OF TWO LOVERS, OR, A ROMANCE OF DRUNKENNESS.

Pity for misfortunes, must not blind us to the real nature of their causes, nor should a factitious interest be excited in favour of those whose only claim to sympathy is their weakness of resolve, and their slavery to idle habits. It argues a bad state of public taste, not less than of public morals, when the gloss of romance is attempted to be cast over actions which are directly destructive, not only of one's own character and life, but of the peace and life of others. The freaks of a drunkard, and the reckless obstinacy of a suicide, are too frequently placed in a false light—the former in being made to elicit mirth, the latter to excite a kind of admiration. The two are but varieties of insanity.

In the following narrative of a melancholy event, the plain moral is not given at all—we are left to deplore the untimely death of two young persons, but we are not distinctly cautioned—the young who should read the account, are not warned against the cause which produced so awful a catastrophe. If there be any thing romantic about it, it is the romance of drunkenness, since it was an act performed by a young man under the inspiration of the genius of alcohol. The article, as given in the Leeds Mercury, runs thus:—

"A great sensation has prevailed in the town of Ripon during the last few days, in consequence of the sudden disappearance of two young persons of the names of Andrew Roy and Elizabeth Meadley. It appears they were strongly attached to each other, and that their intimacy had existed for two years. On Thursday evening, the 18th, this young couple were present at, and took part in a dance at a public house, along with the girl's parents, and some other friends of the parties: they all left the inn about twelve o'clock. Roy accompanied his sweetheart home, and went into the house; he was rather intoxicated, and wished to remain there all night; the girl's father, who was also in liquor, objected, and urged him to go home. At this treatment, as well as from the disinclination of the young woman's friends to the match, he felt offended, and muttered something as he went away. Before he quitted the house he asked to speak to Elizabeth—"only for three minutes" privately; her father reluctantly yielded to the joint entreaties of Roy and his daughter, and allowed her to go to the door. She then went out with her bonnet; after waiting for some time for her return, her mother went in search of them, but in vain. Nothing was heard of the parties on Friday or Saturday; still it was hoped that they might have gone off for the purpose of being married. On Sunday morning, however, a leather case, containing two flutes, was found in the river Ure, close by the town; these flutes were known to have been in Roy's possession, and used by him on the Thursday evening. The most painful apprehensions now began to be felt, and their parents were a prey to the most distressing fears. The river was dragged on Sunday, Monday, and Tuesday; hand-bills were distributed, and every inquiry set on foot by the magistrates, and by the police under their directions; but all were fruitless till the afternoon of Tuesday, at four o'clock, when the body of the young woman was found, entangled by her long hair in some wreck and sand, about three miles down the river, betwixt Ripon and Boroughbridge. The next morning (Wednesday) the body of Roy was found near to the spot where it is supposed they had gone into the river. A coroner's inquest sat upon the bodies, but no evidence, except the substance of what has already been related, was adduced to throw any light on this mysterious affair, and a verdict of "Found Drowned" was recorded. Roy, who was one of the band of the Yorkshire Hussars, was a fine looking man, about twenty-seven years of age, and by trade a cabinet-maker. The ill-fated young woman was about twenty-one,

very prepossessing in her appearance, and of unimpeachable character; she was a mantua-maker. Her fate has excited the deepest sympathy among all classes. The funerals took place on Wednesday evening, and were attended by thousands: and the feeling exhibited by the assembled crowd was creditable to their humanity. One grave received the remains of the two lovers. It is difficult to find even the shadow of a reason for this act of desperation."

There was, we think, no *reason* in the case; the *cause* is given in the very next sentence of the narrative, in which it is said,

"Roy *was in liquor doubtless*, and probably highly exasperated at the supposed unkind treatment of the girl's father, in urging him to go home; *he had been drinking too, for the last three or four days*, as it had been the annual feast at Ripon, so that he had scarcely known what he did."

Apart from the manner of her death, and the circumstances under which it took place, the event might rather be considered a fortunate one for the poor girl. Had she, in time, married this youth, his habits were such as to render it almost certain, that she would have been continually wounded by his addiction to the bottle. The tavern and the ale house, would soon come to be preferred to her society; and with the sensibility she possessed, she could only have lingered out a few years, and ultimately died broken hearted at the brutality of a drunken husband. That such would have been the course of things, was rendered too probable by his continued habits of dissipation, at a time when the possession of her hand depended upon his sobriety and steadiness; thus removing the objections on the part of her father —who, although he could get drunk himself, felt that such a thing was no recommendation to a young man's becoming his son-in-law.

A correspondent of the Leeds Mercury, among other details, gives the following:—

"I have known Roy from his childhood—*his habits have been very irregular for some time*, and his indolence has been such as to occasion sharp rebukes from his own father; he was fond of music, and of a romantic turn—given to company, and of a high ungovernable temper which could not brook any opposition—his indolence and expensive habits kept him poor, and he seemed dissatisfied with himself, and with every thing about him."

Now, it must be very obvious to every person, after reading this sketch of the temperament and mental constitution of Roy, that if any one thing more than another was calculated to keep his mind unsettled, and bring him into violence of action on any slight provocation, it would be the use of intoxicating drinks. If moral temperance were to be hoped for in such a case, it could only be by avoiding physical intemperance—and with a person of such a disposition as Roy's, the only chance of such avoidance would be in entire abstinence from strong drink. His romantic turn and ungovernable temper, required no excitements from the gin shop or the ale house.

This young man is the representative of too many in the world, some of whom are called even promising youths. And have females then, no direct interest in the temperance reform? is it to them a matter of indifference, for mothers to see their daughters consigned to the arms of a drunkard? or for the youthful bride to discover, as she too often does, that the morn of her life is to be so soon obscured by the unkind treatment of a drunken husband, and the final ruin of all her worldly prospects and respectability, by his gradual loss of character and recklessness of the opinion of the good and the wise?

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THE

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Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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At the risk of encountering the jests of some of our friends, both married and single, we, poor lone bachelor folks, must again, in the sincerity of our hearts admit, even though it be to our own condemnation, that Hufeland was perfectly correct when he enumerated a happy married state, as one of the means of preserving health and promoting longevity. We do not feel ourselves equal to the task of examining, as a question of political economy, into the propriety of early marriages; we leave that to Malthus and his opponents; but we do believe, that this sacred union thus early formed, will greatly contribute to the general serenity of the parties in after life. The mere egotist may be heard to say, that his time will be unduly taken up, and his attention absorbed by the cares of a family. But if system, and a freedom from numerous little petty vanities, be essential to success, the chances are in favour of the married man. His social relations are established on a well understood footing: the calls upon his time, for frivolous intercourse abroad, and the numerous interruptions to which he was subjected, as a bachelor, at home, in a great measure cease. The domestic engagements of one day, serve as the measure of another; and he can calculate with tolerable precision, on the period to be allotted to business and to study. When wearied by the daily struggle with his fellow men, in the road to wealth or professional distinction, the husband, while finding solace and repose at home, is also enabled to convert this period of rest into one of useful study and profitable reflection. In his family group, he is made fully aware of the relations which he has to sustain

with the world at large, and of the responsibilities which he incurs, as well as the duties to be performed. After a fatiguing day's labour of body or of mind, and sometimes of both, he is not driven, as too often happens to the bachelor, into the society of the frivolous—happy if not the dissolute, to divert his attention; nor need his sensibilities, worn down by collision in the crowd, or rivals in the career of ambition, be roused by unnatural excitement,—the contagion of folly, the intoxicating bowl, or the midnight revel. The single man, who should even disdain recourse to idle recreation, and should stand aloof from companions incapable of inspiring or of receiving his esteem—whose whole soul should be directed to the onward march for wealth, reputation, and honours, and who should exhaust in this channel the disposition to love and friendship, the softer emotions of sympathy and benevolence, will still but just escape misery. Happiness he knows not: he feels, and he must sometimes, like the unfortunate youthful poet,* exclaim, that he has lived "an unloved, solitary thing!" At times he may, perhaps, persuade himself, that affections silenced are dead; and that his long assumed coldness and reserve are but philosophical equanimity, and a protection against the world's idle curiosity and intrusive pity, for sorrows and disappointments which it would never have spontaneously either averted or soothed. But there are moments, in which he feels that he is exercising a constraint on himself; and although from long habit, he may believe that the armour of indifference sits easy on him, he cannot, after all, remain entirely insensible to the irksomeness of his condition. In brief, neither the fullness of happiness nor of health can be experienced, if the affections and sentiments are unduly constrained, or irregularly and unnaturally exercised; and when, it may be asked, can the feelings so fully and appropriately expand themselves as in the matrimonial state, and in the discharge of the various duties required of those who enter into it? It will, we apprehend, be found that the greater number of those distinguished men in the arts and sciences, and in the liberal professions, who had to struggle the most under the pressure of poverty and other adverse circumstances, were married in the early part of their career, and during or before the seasons of their greatest trials. Fewer unmanly concessions and sacrifices to principle, fewer examples of cowardly flight from the world by suicide, will be found among the married than the single, in the first eventful period, in which a man begins to play his part in the drama of life.

"That dependance on the other half, necessary in marriage," says Hufeland, "accustoms one continually to a dependance on the laws; regard for one's wife and children, obliges one to be regular and industrious: by his children a man is attached closely to the state, its interest and prosperity

* Kirke White.

by these means become his own; or, as Bacon expresses it, he who is married, and has children, has given pledges to the state; he is a true citizen and a real patriot. But what is still more, a foundation is here laid, not only for the happiness of the present generation, but for that of the future also; as it is the matrimonial union only that produces to the state good moral citizens, accustomed from their youth to regularity and observance of their duty. One must not imagine that the state itself can supply that formation of the manners and education which an all-wise nature hath connected with the hearts of a father and a mother. The state, alas, is a bad mother!"

Marriage, according to the same author whom we have just quoted, is the only means to regulate love, and to direct it to its proper object. It moderates and regulates enjoyment, and is especially promotive of domestic happiness, which is the purest, the most uniform, and the least wasting of all. It tends to moderate overstrained hope and enthusiastic speculation, as well as excessive care. Every thing by the participation of another being—by the intimate connexion of our existence with that of another, is rendered milder and more supportable. To this may be added, that tender charge, that heaven on earth, secured by nothing so much as wedded love, which lies in the possession of healthful and well educated children; that actual renovation reserved for us by their company, of which Cornaro, at the age of eighty, has given so affecting a picture.

When early marriages are recommended, it is not to be supposed that this recommendation applies to a matrimonial union, before the body has acquired its full growth and activity of functions. Nor are the rules of common worldly prudence to be so far lost sight of, as to encourage betrothing between boys and girls, and marriages entered into before the husband has yet marked out for himself any regular course of business or reputable employment, by which a reasonable prospect is afforded of ultimate success, and an income adequate to meet necessary expenses.

CLIMATE OF SPAIN.

As part of our plan of giving an account of the climate, and of the soil, as influencing climate, of the different countries on the face of the globe, we insert, on the present occasion, an interesting sketch of the temperature and winds of Spain, derived from an authoritative source.*

"The soil of the Peninsula naturally exhibits great diversities. The central region consists for the most part of arid unsheltered plains, intersected with lofty mountains, which reflect with intolerable fierceness the scorching heat of summer, and sharpen

* The Foreign Quarterly Review, for July, 1831.

into more piercing keenness the intense cold of winter. The region of the coast, less elevated than the interior plateau, and sloping gradually towards the sea, is broken into an alternation of mountains and valleys, which produces the most agreeable variety, and presents a pleasant contrast to the bleak and barren sameness by which the central region is characterized. It is every where fertile, or may easily be rendered so by means of irrigation. With regard to the climate, its diversities are determined by the physical conformation of the country. The temperature of the air, always varying less on the borders of the sea, than in the interior of the country, is much more equable on the coasts of Spain than in the different provinces of that kingdom. On the northern and western coast the prevailing winds blow from the west, and, loaded with the moisture they have absorbed in their passage across the Atlantic, discharge abundant rains in winter and in spring. The atmosphere is much calmer on the coast of the Mediterranean, where the east winds, which are the most frequent, never acquire the force which they possess at the extremity of the Peninsula, especially at Cadiz. Thus the coasts of Catalonia, and those of the kingdoms of Valencia, Murcia, and Grenada, enjoy a mild temperature, which seldom descends so low as 32°, and generally maintains itself above 57° of Fahrenheit. Winter, indeed, is almost unknown on a coast sheltered by the elevated land of the interior, and warmed by the rays of a cloudless sun. On the plateau of the Castilles, the mean height of which is about eighteen hundred feet above the level of the sea, heat accumulates more slowly; and it is not until the beginning of July that the atmosphere, having then become calmer, acquires a temperature capable of sustaining itself between 57° and 68°, or of ascending as high as 77° of Fahrenheit. In the month of August the coolness of the nights, then become longer, shoots, as it were, into the morning, and also makes itself felt in the evening soon after sunset; by which means the heat of the day is considerably moderated. Except in the northern provinces, the climate of Spain is every where remarkable for its dryness. A freedom from rain and dampness, and a cloudless transparent sky, are advantages which may generally be counted on. But this dryness sometimes becomes excessive, and degenerates into a scorching drought, by which the rivers are entirely dried up, vegetation is utterly destroyed, and men and animals die miserably of thirst. The annals of Spain record numerous instances of such droughts, with the fatal effects of which they were productive both on vegetable and animal life. In that elevated basin in which the capital is situated, the heats of summer are in fact always so great, that, according to the Spanish saying, Madrid has nine months of winter and three of hell (*nueve meses d'invierno y tres d'infierno.*) In its wisdom, however, the adminis-

tration has contrived to improve on the bounty of nature, and it may now accordingly, without any exaggeration, be said, that, to the greater part of the inhabitants of that capital, the whole year consists of twelve months of hell! Many of the mountains of Spain, rising above the line of congelation in that country, have their summits covered with perpetual snow; whilst the elevated and unsheltered plains of the interior are swept by cold blasts in winter, and burnt up in summer by a powerful and never clouded sun. This is in a great measure owing to the want of wood, which is scarcer in Spain than in any other country in Europe. In fact, from Bayonne to Cadiz not a single forest is to be seen: excepting several patches in Biscay, the groves and avenues of Aranjuez, and some valleys or rather gorges in Andalusia, which are studded by trees of a certain thickness, all the rest of the kingdom in this direction is of a whitish arid aspect, which fatigues the eye and saddens the spirit. The mountains, destitute of vegetation, no longer attract the humidity of the air, necessary for the support of plants in valleys and plains; the rivers, as we have already said, are almost all inconsiderable throughout the greater part of their rapid courses; and the level grounds being in like manner wholly naked and unsheltered, the climate of this elevated region, untempered and unmitigated, necessarily produces those extremes of heat and cold which are so detrimental to the fertility of the soil, and to the health and comfort of its inhabitants. Nor is this nakedness the effect of natural sterility, or of any thing in the climate adverse to the growth of trees. On the contrary, the example of Valencia shows that, in the luxuriance of its forests as well as of its crops, Spain might have rivalled or surpassed any country in Europe. But the people generally have an inveterate and inexplicable prejudice against trees, which are mercilessly cut down or destroyed ere they attain any considerable growth; and so universal and savage is this strange propensity in the central provinces, that the most watchful and rigorous measures are necessary to preserve the avenues and groves of Aranjuez from wanton destruction.—(Faure, Laborde, *Year in Spain.*)

THE MOUTH.

The mouth has been quaintly called the 'throne of smiles,' and smiles are said to be all sisters; yet how little do they resemble each other! Some are simple, ingenuous, modest and innocent; others are tender, winning and voluptuous; others are lively, gay, petulant or witty, and others mischievous, satirical or scornful. Of all these lovely or mischievous companions of the lips, the half-smile is, by far, the most lovely. We take the liberty

of bestowing this name upon the virgin smile which shows itself with such timidity, which peeps forth with such grace, and which dare not, as it would seem, completely expand itself—the smile, if we may say so, which is not so much a smile as the desire of smiling. The half-smile is the charming symbol of innocence and candour, the emblem of virtue and of pleasure, simple, natural, and unsophisticated.* The full formed smile, however, is but little inferior to its younger sister. Somewhat less retiring and timid, it speaks with more spirit to the heart; and, the expression being more complete, tends to make it perhaps, still dearer to the admirers of beauty. The smile, when ingenuous, is, indeed, one of the most powerful charms of beauty. Its language is most expressive; mute indeed, but eloquent. It is by a smile that a bashful beauty approves an avowal which her tongue opposes, but with which her heart is flattered. How many conquests have been made by a graceful smile!

May it not be—is it not probable—that the poets and painters of antiquity found the model of Cupid's fabled bow in the graceful form of the female lip? Is not, indeed, the mouth of a handsome and virtuous woman, the most powerful weapon of the "mischievous boy," who, as has been observed, by a lady of great wit, can subject the stronger sex to the dominion of the weaker? The lip is truly, then, the bow of love; and of all the arrows discharged by Cupid, the smile of innocence, is certainly the most effective, and particularly the one which Milton says, "Loves to play in dimple sleek." Such is the power of a smile—but we cannot forbear remarking, that every thing, and even a smile may be abused, from our being able sometimes to counterfeit nature. Those charming smiles, which play spontaneously with such grace on the ruby lip of youthful beauty, too often owe their existence to the combination of artifice. 'Tis easy, however, to distinguish the one from the other; for the smile which is the offspring of art, is destitute of all that native grace, which can only be bestowed by the hand of nature, and the impulse of a pure heart. We should be careful then, not to confound the lovely expression of feeling and of mind, with the mechanical and studied movements of a counterfeit face. As the plants cultivated beneath a glass never assume the free and natural attitudes and freshened tints of those which grow in the open air of a genial climate, so the smile which is the child of art never possesses the truth and graces of its amiable model—the one is ingenuous love, which appears in all its loveliness, while the other is a dangerous net, spread by a deceitful hand.† Since, then, smiles are of so much importance to beauty, the mouth by which they are formed deserves the utmost care. The colour of the lips—the rich, fresh,

* Encyclop'die des Dames. † L'Art de se faire Aimer.

ruby tint, so highly praised by poets, painters, and lovers, and upon which even philosophers delight to look, depends chiefly on health; and we can almost insure it, without chance of disappointment, to those who, from their earliest life, have been accustomed to observe the rules of health. Strict temperance and regular exercise in the open air, clothing adapted to preserve the body from the vicissitudes of the weather, while it leaves to every limb and muscle a perfect freedom of action, with a cultivated mind, and peaceful conscience, are the only genuine means of increasing health and of perfecting personal beauty.

The proper position, regularity, and whiteness of the teeth also, are essential to the beauty of the mouth, and add an additional grace to many a smile. The teeth, it is true, are but little under the dominion of art, with respect to their regularity and arrangement—though by attention to the general health of the system, and especially by proper food and drinks, exercise and temperance, much can be done in preserving their whiteness and brilliancy.

In short, if one half the attention which is daily paid by females to increase the beauty of the mouth and face by artificial aids, were bestowed upon the rational means of preserving health—we should hear less of the faded charms—blanched lips and wrinkled brows, to conceal which, excites now so much solicitude in those who have, as yet, scarcely attained the prime of life.

CLEANLINESS OF CHILDREN.

The following excellent remarks upon the necessity of cleanliness in children, appeared originally in the *Connecticut Observer*. The erroneous opinion to which they refer is so generally maintained by a certain class in society, that we feel desirous of giving them a more extensive circulation, by transferring them to this Journal.

In section X. of the Catechism of Health, at page 19, we find the following question and answer:

"Q. Is the common saying, that children thrive best in dirt, correct?

"A. It is altogether false. Without a child is kept clean in its person and clothing, is lodged in a clean apartment, and sleeps in a clean bed, it is impossible to preserve it in perfect health."

Without explanation, these remarks would appear to many to be extravagant, and contrary to fact. Children, it will be said, who are allowed to play in dirt are as healthy as those who are confined in the parlour, and even much more so. But it ought to be remarked that our author is here speaking, not of the

health of the child when compared with those around him, but of *perfect* health. He who is allowed to play in the dirt, may indeed be more vigorous than many other children, yet it is possible that his vigour would be still greater if he were kept clean. It is not the dirt which benefits him, but his active exercise in the open air, the advantages of which are more than sufficient, so far, to compensate for the injury he sustains from the earth, as to still leave him in a better state of health than those who are deprived of proper air and exercise. So that the sentiments in the work from which we have quoted may be true, notwithstanding the objection which is brought against them.

We are the more solicitous to combat belief in the salutary tendency of a neglect of cleanliness, because we know it prevails to some extent, and because we know also, both from reason and from fact, that it is a gross error. Every portion of the skin is pierced with little holes, which serve as outlets for the fluids of perspiration. They are so numerous that we cannot touch the skin with the finest needle without hitting one or more of these openings. While a person is in health, there is not a moment, sleeping or waking, in which fluid in the form of a vapour or mist is not escaping, unless the mouths of these little vessels are blocked up. Now, can they be closed with filth for hours together, and the subject escape uninjured? We do not believe it!

It is, however, true, that years sometimes intervene before the evil consequences appear. The office of the vessels of the skin being interrupted, by a law of the animal economy an increase of action is imposed on other parts, especially on the internal organs commonly called glands, which action is apt to settle into obstinate disease. Hence, at least when aided by other causes, often arise, in later life, after the source of the evil is forgotten, if it were ever suspected, rheumatism, scrofula, jaundice, and even consumption. There is something deceitful after all, in the ruddy, blooming appearance of those children who are left by the busy parent to play in the road or field, without attention to cleanliness. If this were not so, how comes it to pass, that they suffer much more, not only from chronic diseases, but from fevers and other acute diseases, than the same number of those children whose parents are in better circumstances?

There is a vulgar notion abroad that the *smell* of the earth is beneficial, especially to consumptive persons. We honestly believe, however, that it is as likely to create consumption as to cure it. Besides, in what does this smell consist? Do the silex, the alumine, and the other earths, with their compounds, emit any odour? Rarely, we believe, unless when mixed with vegetable matter. But no gases necessary to health are evolved during the decomposition of vegetable matter; on the contrary it is well known that many of them tend to induce disease. We

are thoroughly persuaded that too much attention cannot be paid to cleanliness; and the demand for such attention is equally imperious in the case of those who cultivate the earth, or labour in it, or on stone, during the intervals of their useful avocations, as in the case of those individuals who follow other occupations.

We protest against the doctrine that the smell or taste of the earth, much less a coat of it spread over the surface, and closing up for hours and days together, thousands and millions of those pores with which the Author of this "wondrous frame" has pierced the skin can have a salutary tendency.

SQUINTING

There is something so peculiarly grotesque in a squint, that it seldom fails to cause a risibility of countenance in the observer, on a first introduction, subversive, too often, of every other feeling. We have heard it occasionally asserted, that the loss of a limb, or an eye, excited for the brave an additional interest, in the opinion of the ladies; but we cannot charge our memory with ever having heard the same remark in regard to a squint, which, on the contrary, has always been considered a subject of merriment—and which even the most philosophical must admit to be the very reverse of a beauty. It is, at least, a defect that all would very willingly dispense with. In many instances squinting is dependent upon some mal-conformation, or disease, of the eye or its appendages: very frequently, however, it is the effect of a vicious habit acquired in youth, or is caused during infancy by allowing the light to fall constantly upon the eyes in an improper direction. The part of the room, in which the cradle or couch of an infant is placed becomes, therefore, a subject of very considerable importance. It should invariably be such, as will, while it screens the eyes from a dazzling or unequal light, prevent the latter from falling upon them sideways, or very obliquely. When the light which enters the room is moderate, and of a mellow character, the face of the child should be directly in front of it; but when intense and dazzling, it is better to place the child in such a direction as to allow the light to fall on the back part of its head, or upon the back of the cradle or bed. When in the evening, a lamp or candle, or an open fire, is burning in the room, the same precaution should be observed. As an infant will almost instinctively direct its eyes towards the light, unless this be uniformly diffused throughout the apartment, or be placed in a direct line with its eyes, it will, from the habit of viewing it side-ways, acquire a permanent obliquity of vision. This is more particularly apt to occur, and the consequent deformity is much greater, when, from the head being sunk in the

pillow, or enveloped in a cap with a projecting border, the light can be viewed only with the eye placed the furthest from it. The same attention should be paid to the manner in which objects intended for the amusement of the child, are presented to its view. This should always be directly in front, so that it can see them without turning the eye in any considerable degree to one or other side. These precautions may seem trifling to the unreflecting, but their neglect has, we are assured, been not unfrequently the cause of a distortion of vision, to the inconvenience and mortification arising from which, the individual has been subjected during the remainder of his or her life.

LADIES' TEMPERANCE SOCIETY.

(From the Temperance Advocate.)

THE annual meeting of this valuable auxiliary in the cause of temperance, was held pursuant to notice, on Friday evening last, at Dr. Gibson's. The report, which we hereto subjoin, is not as full, perhaps, as many at a distance might wish; but the circumstance of the society being in its infancy, was deemed an objection to going more into a detail of their labours. Like Hercules, it has seized the poisonous foe which at first threatened to exterminate it, and in its strength, has cast it to the ground—we trust fatally wounded. We know, that to the *ladies* much credit is to be attached, for their firmness and perseverance, even while opposed or sneered at by temperate men—as well as for the amount of good accomplished by them. Many anecdotes might be related of their usefulness, in promoting temperance and putting moderate or social drinking to the blush. Here is one:—A large assemblage had met to celebrate a wedding party, and wine was circulating in rich profusion. There were gentlemen present who were members of the Temperance Society, some of whom "took a little; while the ladies absolutely refused to taste it, reproving by expressions not to be misunderstood, the misconduct of the temperance gentlemen, who had allowed circumstances and place to exercise an undue influence over them. One of them asked the servant for a pitcher of "*cold water*, and some tumblers;" which having obtained, she handed around the room, inviting "*all* the *cold water* admirers to sustain their precepts by example." It is hardly necessary to say, such as had been so injudicious as to take a glass of wine in their hands, set it aside for the more suitable and rational liquid of nature. Such was the effect of introducing the water, that in a company of above sixty persons, not a quart of wine was used! But for the report.

"The 'Ladies' Temperance Society of Sandy-Hill' was com-

menced under many embarrassing circumstances. The formation of such a society, upon the principle of total abstinence from *fermented* as well as distilled liquors, was considered by many as unnecessary and improper. At the first meeting only ten ladies signed the constitution. The subject was much agitated, and resulted favourably for the increase of its members, so much so, that in less than four weeks its numbers had increased to more than fifty. Many who at first could not see the necessity or propriety of the *ladies* engaging in this work of benevolence, by a more careful examination of the subject, have been led to view it in a different light, and have given their names and their influence to advance its interests. The society now numbers one hundred and nineteen.

We think we can say, it has already been productive of some good in this village. We are happy to state that the custom so long and so universally practised of offering wine or other intoxicating drinks to our friends in social parties, is becoming quite unfashionable, and is almost entirely in disuse among us. It is no longer considered a breach of hospitality to withhold the poisonous cup, nor as necessary to rational or social enjoyment. How much is owing to the Ladies Temperance Society in this change of sentiment, perhaps it is not for us to say, but we think it has not been without its influence.

We feel that we have abundant cause for thankfulness to a kind Providence who has thus far blessed our efforts; and we would be encouraged to persevere in our exertions with increased energy. We have no hesitation in saying, were every lady to speak openly and decidedly against the practice of drinking on any occasion, except as prescribed by medical men for medicinal purposes, and act upon this principle, it would soon cease to be seen in any place that has any claims to respectability. Females may do much in restraining vice and immorality, by a firm and decided stand on the side of truth and virtue."

BUTTER-MILK—WHEY.

Butter-milk is that well known fluid which remains in the churn after the butter has been separated from the milk. When fresh it is simply, therefore, whey and curd; the latter undergoing a slight change in the process of churning, by which it would appear to be rendered more easy of digestion. Butter-milk is used extensively as an aliment in several parts of Europe. It possesses, to a considerable extent, nutritive properties, and when taken with bread or other vegetable substances, forms certainly a very appropriate and wholesome article of food. It will be found, likewise, an excellent drink during summer, either by itself

or diluted with water; its effects in allaying thirst, and refreshing the system, when suffering from the heat of the weather, are increased when it has become slightly acid—which it very quickly does when allowed to stand.

With many physicians butter-milk is a favourite diet in the earlier stages of consumption. Like every other bland fluid aliment it is certainly well adapted to those predisposed to this disease; it possesses, however, no specific powers over the malady; and those who should trust, for warding off the threatened attack, to the use of butter-milk, neglecting all other precautionary measures, will, most assuredly, meet with disappointment.

Nearly the same remarks may be made in reference to *whey* in its separate condition, when it is combined with the curd in the form of butter-milk—it forms a bland, easily assimilated nourishment—increases the secretions, and has a tendency to produce a beneficial change in the state of the fluids of the body. It contains a considerable amount of sugar, which renders it sufficiently nutritious—it is less so, however, than the milk itself. As a drink, whey, in point of salubrity, is only inferior to water, which enters so largely into its composition. Like butter-milk, it is peculiarly well adapted to allaying the thirst of labourers in hot weather, and may, in nearly all parts of our country, be procured in great plenty. The ancients, we are informed, were in the habit of using it both as a drink and as food to a large amount. Would that the moderns could be induced to substitute it for the destructive liquids now in too common use.

Whey separated by the rennet, is preferable to that which separates spontaneously: the lightest for the stomach, and the most agreeable to the palate by its being slightly acidulous, is butter-milk or *two milk* whey, made by adding two parts of sweet milk to one of sour butter-milk. The milk of various animals yields a whey somewhat different in its properties. Thus cow's milk allows its cream to be separated in the greatest proportion with the whey; sheep's milk less; while goat's milk gives a whey in which scarcely any of the cream is contained. The latter, therefore, is better suited to those valetudinarians, in whom there is danger of exciting fever, or rousing into action inflammatory disease by a diet even moderately rich.

DRUNKENNESS—INSANITY.

In the valuable work of Dr. Combe on Mental Derangement, the author, after enumerating various exciting causes of the disease, goes on to say:—

"Another cause of a similar nature may be adverted to, and for the same reason, its action on the brain is not denied or

doubted,—I allude to the abuse of intoxicating liquors. That wine and spirits in unusual quantity derange the mental manifestations, I need hardly stop to state; and this being the case, it is easy to conceive that habitual excess may at last induce a permanent irregularity of action in the brain, amounting to disease; and, accordingly, nervous tremors, head-aches, fits of excitement, often amounting to mental alienation, and delirium tremens, are observed to be common consequences of over-indulgence.

"The remarkable increase of insanity among the lower orders in Great Britain, particularly in the manufacturing districts, has been pretty accurately traced, partly to the miseries, want, and anxiety, inseparable from the fluctuations to which they are exposed, and partly to the prevalence of dram-drinking, as the only means of relief within their reach.—That it is not the mental distress alone which is the cause, is proved by finding the large majority of the patients to be among those who have been the most intemperate. Occasionally, however, it must be admitted, the excessive drinking is only the first symptom, and not the cause of the disease.

"That intoxication acts upon and disorders the brain more directly than any other organ, is further evident from observing the effects of an excess upon persons of different habits and constitutions. Thus an excess may so excite the brain of a strong healthy man as to throw him into a brain-fever, as it used to be called, or into a state of delirium, or temporary madness; and the same excess in a person constitutionally liable to insanity, will probably excite the brain in that peculiar way which constitutes mania; thus establishing in another way the strong connecting link between all forms of cerebral disease and all varieties of mental disturbance. From the permanence of the irritation kept up in the brain by systematic intemperance, the habitual drunkard will be more liable to attacks of insanity, and the occasional debauchee to attacks of cerebral disease in one or other of its acuter forms."

The experience of every physician, who has had opportunities of observation, coincides with that of Dr. Combe. The evil is admitted indeed by all. But are the means of prevention understood and enforced? Excess is reprobated, but fruition is allowed by the school of moderate tipplers. who would think it very hard that a man should be prevented from injuring his health a little every day, by drinking a little ardent spirit every day; even though abstinence should prevent his being ultimately seized with some violent and often fatal disease, such as inflammations of the brain, or of the liver, or stomach, or often all conjoined. And what would be the effects of entire abstinence? Present comfort, and better health; and exemption, at a later period, from racking pains, and many mortal diseases.

DRESSING CHICKENS.

The following easy and economical mode of dressing chickens for invalids, comes from no less an authority than that noted "Cook and wholesome Condiment Preparer," Mr. C. W. Lopresti, who utters his oracular gastronomics at his "Epicurean Depot, 22 Mount street, Berkeley Square."

"Select a fine young chicken, truss it for boiling, put it into a stew-pan, just large enough to hold it, with half a pint of cold water, and take care that the cover fit very close, to prevent evaporation; set it on the fire until it boils, then keep it gently simmering for five-and-twenty minutes or half an hour, dish up the fowl, and after removing with a spoon any little fat that swims on the surface of the broth, strain it through a fine lawn sieve over the chicken; a little salt may be added, and sippets of bread, if approved. As a sauce, when one is required, the following will be found far more agreeable and wholesome for weak stomachs than melted butter:—gravy thickened with flour and butter, greasy broth, batter, &c. Beat up the yolks of two raw eggs with two table spoonsful of water, strained through a small hair sieve, then put to it, first taking off any fat that may be seen on the top, the real juice or broth in which the chicken was boiled; stir it over the fire without permitting it to boil, as that would cause it to curdle, until of a proper thickness, then pour it over the fowl and serve it up. This sauce may be rendered still more palatable by the addition of salt, white pepper, blanched parsley, &c.

Rice can be prepared with a chicken in a similar manner to the above by making use of a pint of water, or the same quantity of veal broth, and Carolina rice, which has been previously boiled in water for a few minutes, and when ready may be seasoned with salt, a little grated nutmeg, and a very small quantity of fresh butter added just before it is served up. Italian maccaroni boiled in water until tender is a good substitute for rice, and can be put into a tureen with the chicken; some palates admit of a little Parmesan cheese being added to the maccaroni.

The frequent and common practice, that of putting a delicate small chicken into a large saucepan full of water to boil, is extremely erroneous, as the meat is deprived of the juice and nutritious parts, and by being thus rendered insipid and dry is less easy of digestion."—*Gaz. of Health.*

A Quarrel and its mode of adjustment.—We read the following in the United States Gazette:—

"Two men near Frankfort, (Ken.) a short time since, quarrelled about a

penknife. The matter was settled by the strongest man beating the brains out of the other. Both were *drunk.*"

Which is the most rational feasible plan for preventing such bloody and fatal acts as that just recorded? Will it be by moral dissuasions from passion and anger; eloquent discourses on moral temperance? or by abstaining from the use of that deleterious agent, ardent spirit, which then sets all the faculties into disorder, and destroys the feeling and consciousness of moral responsibility? Let the advocates for moderate tippling answer this question. Let those whose delicate sensibilities are distressed by the so frequent mention of temperance publications, and of temperance documents, answer.

Temperance in Sheffield, Eng.—At a late temperance meeting in Sheffield, in the proceedings of which James Montgomery, Esq. the poet, took part, Rev. Dr. J. Pye Smith, one of the most distinguished Biblical scholars in England, at the close of his address, said:—

"It would be presumptuous in him to say that a little wine or malt liquor should not be taken, but he trusted his friends would excuse him for mentioning his own experience on this subject. His chief beverage at present was water and milk. He was formerly in the habit of taking one or two glasses of wine, but since he had abstained from it he found that he was much better in health and strength, and better able to undergo the fatigue of his labours, than he was before. He had also known sailors, whose chief beverage was tea and coffee, better able to do their work than those who drank ardent spirits, and they were always less subject to disease."

On the Causes, Cure, and Means of Preventing the Sick Head-ache. By *James Mease,* M. D., Member of the American Philosophical Society, &c. &c. Third Edition. Philadelphia: Henry H. Porter, 121 Chesnut-street; pp. 52, 8vo—This is an excellent little work; and we cannot but regret that an author, who arrives at such accurate conclusions, respecting the diversified causes of a troublesome, and often tormenting malady, and who conveys his views so lucidly on the various means of cure, to be used in succession or alternately, should ever have allowed his name to give currency to the absurdities of so called specifics and panaceas, being adequate to the removal of the most complicated, protracted and violent diseases to which the human frame is liable. Dr. Mease, author of the essay before us, practically condemns Dr. Mease, signer of certificates in favour of Liverwort and a Panacea. Let us hope that he sees his error, and that the present edition of the work on sick head-ache is intended as a kind of atonement for the promulgation of the absurdities and misrepresentations, alike injurious to the public and to the interests of science, as well as adverse to sound ethics, to which he, and other distinguished members of the medical profession, were decidedly accessary, when they gave their names as certifiers of cures, alleged to be performed by a secret remedy, such as Swaim's Panacea. It is by the certificates of such persons that knavery has been so successfully upheld, and the daily press so long disgraced by allowing a display of the shameless ignorance and disregard of common sense, and common feeling of nostrum makers and venders. We turn away from such a revolting spectacle to the agreeable contrast presented in the essay on sick head-ache, our eulogy of which we hope to be able to fully justify by an analysis and extracts in our next.

The Baltimore Times—a paper devoted to Science, Arts, Literature, and general information; conducted by Professors Ducatel and Calvert. In this age of utility, when the sciences, the arts, and literature have broken loose from colleges and libraries, and, arrayed in the plain and humble garb of a weekly journal, visit the workshops and habitations of even the poorest mechanics; when the desire for knowledge pervades all classes of society, and men distinguished for their talents, no

longer consider it beneath their dignity to communicate the result of their labours and studies in a form adapted to fulfil this desire, it becomes scarcely necessary to say any thing in commendation of a publication, conducted on the plan of the one, the title of which has just been given. Presenting a large amount of useful and interesting matter in a popular shape, it is only necessary for it to be generally known to insure that patronage which it so richly merits. To those who are interested in the progress of the sciences and arts, or who are desirous of introducing into their families, at a trifling expense, literary essays and sketches, of a nature calculated at once to inform the mind and improve the heart, we can with great confidence recommend this work. It is published in Baltimore every Saturday, in numbers of eight quarto pages, closely printed, at three dollars per annum. H. H. Porter, Literary Rooms, No. 121 Chesnut street, is the general agent for this and the neighbouring states.

The Monthly Traveller; or Spirit of the Periodical Press. Published by Badger & Porter, office of the American Traveller. Boston, 63 Court street.—We ought before now to have directed the attention of our readers to this agreeable and unpretending periodical, which has the additional merit, withal, of being very cheap—the subscription price being but two dollars per annum, in advance, or two dollars and a half at the end of the year. Each number consists of fifty closely printed pages, large octavo, in double columns, and contains literary notices, well selected tales and poetry, and much other instructive and entertaining matter, of a popular, scientific, and moral nature.

Of a similar character, but with the customary news of the day, and other essentials for a good newspaper, is the American Traveller, published at the same office twice a week, (Tuesday and Friday.) Terms four dollars per annum. The contents of this paper are both varied and instructive. All the new works as they appear are noticed in it either critically, or by copious and well chosen extracts.

We learn from the last number of the *North American Medical and Surgical Journal*, that that work is brought to a close. The editors, however, intimate their intention to "enlighten the medical public through the pages of a periodical." On the next page we read the following notice:—

NEW WEEKLY MEDICAL JOURNAL.

H. H. Porter, Literary Rooms, 121 Chesnut street, Philadelphia, proposes to publish in the first week of January next, a new Medical Journal, to be called the Journal of Medicine.

It will be published weekly—each number to consist of eight quarto pages.—Terms $2 50 *per annum, in advance.*

Postage the same as that on newspapers.

Care will be taken to make the *Journal of Medicine* a record of the current medical literature of the day, by Editorial Notices, Critical Analyses, and Reviews—as also of Clinical Medicine, by details of cases in hospitals and private practice; with an especial attention to all improvements and discoveries in Therapeutics. Needful reforms in the present modes of medical instruction; and ameliorations required in the ethics and practice of the profession, will be freely suggested. As forming a part of the history of medicine, biographical sketches of distinguished physicians, surgeons, &c. will obtain a place in the columns of the *Journal.*

The following valuable works, &c. are published and for sale at the Literary Rooms, 121 Chesnut street:—

Porter's Health Almanack for 1832;
The Journal of Health;
The Monthly American Journal of Geology and Natural Science;
Catechism of Health;
Bell on Baths and Mineral Waters;
Thackrah on the Effects of the Arts, Trades, and Professions, &c., on Health and Longevity.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, December 28, 1831. No. 8.

In proffering a few remarks on the epidemic catarrh, or the *influenza*, which has of late prevailed over so great an extent of country, we intend to direct the attention of our readers mainly to two points: 1st. The illustration which this catarrh affords of an epidemical, in contrast with a contagious disease. 2d. The precautions which it is proper to adopt under the circumstances—precautions, by the way, which will be found useful beyond the present season, and long after the present livery of disease shall be changed.

Except in its greater diffusion, and attacking at the same time such a number of persons, scattered over a vast extent of country, the influenza exhibits no symptom or set of symptoms, distinct from common catarrh, or a cold, as it is called in popular language. Of its depending on the state of the air, we are not allowed to doubt; since this is the only common agent or cause to which people otherwise so differently circumstanced are exposed. The disease cannot have a local or terrestrial origin; otherwise we should find it in particular districts and exposures, to the exclusion of others. It is, therefore, strictly epidemical; that is, it attacks a great number of persons at the same time, and extends over a whole country. But it is not endemical, since it has not a fixed or stated cause, peculiar to the country. Nor does it remain without change or variation for many years, or for a particular season in many years; as in the examples of remittent and intermittent, or of yellow fevers. The disease in question, or the influenza, is not contagious: for although it is common

for members of the same family to be attacked in succession; at other times they are simultaneously affected, or in such rapid succession as to forbid the supposition of one communicating the disease to another. Sometimes all the members except one in a family are assailed; sometimes one alone is affected, and the others enjoy exemption from its attack. A contagious disease on the other hand, can have but one specific origin, viz. the application of the morbid matter to the living body: it is nearly uniform in its symptoms and progress, attacking always the same order of parts, and in a certain mode of progression. Its operation may be quickened by other causes; but no one or all of them can produce it, unless the specific cause or morbid matter be applied,—as of small-pox, &c.

In an epidemic, such as the influenza, there is a change or deterioration of the atmosphere, whereby the animal economy is predisposed to be affected by common agencies, which, under different circumstances, would have no prejudicial effect. Each of these will prove a direct exciting cause—such as getting the feet wet, standing long on the damp ground, being exposed to currents of cold air, loss of sleep by sitting up all night, or even being under the protracted or intense influence of anxious or depressing feelings, throwing off any customary article of dress, &c. excessive or frequent doses of saline medicines, or of stimulating sudorifics, by which the skin is either chilled or ultimately enfeebled; finally, the languor following a debauch, or excess of any kind. None of these, however, are specific causes, by the application of which we are sure a certain train of symptoms will be produced. Their effect is relative to the state or predisposition of the animal economy. In the case of the influenza, there are two kinds of predisposition or proneness to be attacked: one general, depending on the changed or deteriorated air, which all breathe; the other partial, growing out of the peculiar constitution of the individual—as where he has a weak chest, is liable to rheumatism, or to fulness and pain of the head, &c., or has been enfeebled by advanced age or chronic affection of the lungs.

The deterioration or change of air, of whatever nature it may be, is not of itself generally sufficient to bring on this catarrh or influenza; but by impeding the free play of the lungs, and preventing the customary exhalations from them of vapour and mucus, it throws them open, or predisposes them to disease, by the least change in the function of the skin. This last is readily accomplished by exposure to any of the causes already enumerated, and which, by obstructing insensible, even without checking sensible perspiration, or sweat, will bring on an attack of influenza. The chances of attack will, of course, be greatly increased, if to the general predisposition in the state of the air, be added the special or individual predispositions men-

tioned above. Not only will the probabilities of the disease coming on be increased in these circumstances of combined predisposition, but the danger from the disease will be much greater.

Although the influenza, like other epidemic diseases, exhibits a general resemblance of symptoms in most of those attacked, there is not by any means a complete uniformity, much less that identity which we see in contagious diseases. Thus, the predisposition caused in a given number of persons by the peculiar condition of the atmospheric air, will, after similar exposures to cold and humidity, be converted into disease which shall affect such person differently from his companion in exposure. One will have, after a severe chill, a sore throat and pain in the head; another a slight hoarseness and change of voice; a third a hard cough, with pain and fever; a fourth will complain of his back and limbs, as if they had been severely beaten. Sometimes, though more rarely, the digestive system will be the part chiefly affected, and the sufferer will complain of soreness and cramp, as if he were seized with colic, or will have vomiting. On occasions, the first symptoms of the influenza will yield to a regular attack of rheumatism—pain and swelling of the joints, in those who are subject to this disease; and we have recently seen a slight fit of gout follow the cough and other symptoms of the catarrh.

We see very clearly then, from these details, that except in the greater diffusion of the predisposing cause, there is nothing specific or peculiar in influenza, by which it differs essentially from a common catarrh or cold. Persons exposed at other seasons than the present to the common causes of cold or catarrh, will be variously affected, according to their temperament, or natural constitution, or their acquired one from prior disease. Thus of three men exposed to recent cold at any season, the one may have a fit of the gout, the other a common cough, and the third great disorder and inflammation of the digestive organs.

From all this it is easy to see, that the same prudential maxims, obedience to which would guard us against catching cold, are equally requisite and proper to protect us against influenza; and that as a slight cold is to be dreaded by a person far advanced in life, or by one liable to spitting of blood or to consumption, so is the influenza to be still more sedulously shunned by them. Hence in both cases, of common as well as of epidemic catarrh or influenza, to keep the feet warm and dry, to preserve an equable temperature of the skin, and clothing of suitable texture and quantity, to shun sudden transitions from heat to cold, are necessary means of prevention. If unavoidably exposed in this way, or by getting wet and chilled, to use a warm foot-bath or a general warm bath, and to keep at rest in-doors and use a very light regimen, are also important precautions. Should the influenza have made its attack in due form, it may, like a com-

mon cold, be generally kept in subjection by rigid abstinence—mild herb teas, toast and water, barley or rice water, being the only articles used for either food or drink. The irritation of coughing will be greatly mitigated by flax-seed tea, with the addition of a little lemon juice and sugar, or by gum Arabic, in water.

If other means be used, in the absence of a physician, we would particularly caution against those of a heating nature, such as spirituous liquors, in the various combinations of hot toddy, whiskey punch, or spices and condiments. More or less fever is always present with the cold or influenza; and which will be greatly aggravated by stimulating or exciting remedies. Saline medicines in moderate doses, or even a bleeding from the arm, will generally prove of much greater avail. We mention this practice not with a view to recommend it indiscriminately, but simply to say that it is incomparably safer than the heating or alexipharmic one, and ought, when recommended by a physician, to be had recourse to, without fear or demur. Opium, in its various forms of administration, should not be heedlessly or hastily had recourse to, especially in the first or more feverish stage of the disease; indeed we should recommend that it be only used under the direction of a physician. But after all, the chief hopes of relief, and means of avoiding future ills, the consequences of protracted influenza, will be in a cooling regimen, abstinence at first and afterwards of simple food, light and easy of digestion, such as the farinaceous articles, stewed fruits, &c.; and finally, though with caution, plain animal food in small quantities.

WINE DRINKING AMONG THE ANCIENTS.

Amphictyon is reported to have issued a law, directing that pure wine should be merely tasted at the entertainments of the Athenians; but that the guests should be allowed to drink freely of wine mixed with water, after dedicating the first cup to Jupiter, to remind them of the salubrious quality of the latter fluid. However much this excellent rule may have been occasionally transgressed, it is certain that the prevailing practice of the Greeks was to drink their wines in a diluted state. Hence a common division of them into *strong* wines, which would bear a large admixture of water, and *weak* wines, which admitted of only a slight addition. To drink wine unmixed, was held disreputable, and those who were guilty of such excess were said to act like Scythians. To drink even equal parts of wine and water, or, as we familiarly term it, half and half, was thought to be unsafe; and, in general, the dilution was more considerable; varying, according to the taste of the drinkers, and the strength

of the liquor, from one part of wine and four of water, to two of wine and four, or else five parts of water—which last seems to have been the favourite mixture. From the account which Homer gives us of the dilution of the Maronean wine with twenty measures of water, and from a passage in one of the books ascribed to Hippocrates, directing not less than twenty-five parts of water to be added to one part of old Thasian wine, some persons have inferred, that these wines possessed a degree of strength far surpassing any of the liquors with which we are acquainted in modern times, or of which we can well form an idea. But it must be remembered, that the wines in question were not only inspissated* but also highly seasoned with various aromatic ingredients, and had often contracted a repulsive bitterness from age, which rendered them unfit for use till they were diffused in a large quantity of water; in fact, they may be said to have been used merely for the purpose of giving a flavour to the water. In the instance cited from Hippocrates, the mixture of Thasian wine is prescribed for a patient in fever, and can therefore be regarded as nothing more than a mild diluent drink.

Since water, then, entered so largely into the beverages of the ancients, neither labour nor expense was spared to obtain it in the purest state, and to insure an abundant supply from those fountains and streams, which were thought to yield it of the most grateful and salubrious quality. It is related of Ptolemy Philadelphus, that, after the marriage of his daughter with Antiochus, king of Syria, he caused her to be constantly supplied with water from the Nile, in order that she might not have occasion to drink any other; and the king of Persia, as we learn from Herodotus, would use only that of the river Choaspes; and in all his journeys and expeditions, part of his equipage consisted of a number of four-wheeled wagons, drawn by mules, and bearing a quantity of this water, previously boiled, and preserved in silver vessels. The exertions of the Romans to procure a liberal distribution of this necessary of life are well known. They sought for the choicest springs, and conveyed the waters of them, often from a great distance, clear and uncontaminated, into their cities, by means of those majestic aqueducts, of which the ruins strike us with astonishment, and must always be regarded as among the noblest monuments of ancient art.

In order more effectually to dissolve those wines which had become inspissated by age, the water was sometimes purified by boiling; and, when the solution was completed, the liquor was strained through a cloth, in order to free it from any impurities which it might have contracted. As this operation, however,

* Rendered thick like treacle.—Of these wines, many of which were made of the *unfermented* juice of the grape, we propose to give some account on a future occasion.

was apt to communicate an unpleasant taste, or at least to deprive them of their natural flavour, such persons as were nice in the management of their wines, adopted the expedient of exposing them to the night air, which was thought to assist their clarification without impairing their other virtues.

As the wines thus diluted were frequently drunk warm, hot water became an indispensable article at the entertainments of the ancients. We find Lucian describing a supper, at which wine and water, both cold and hot, were placed on a side table for the accommodation of the guests; in general, however, the latter was filled out to them, when called for, by the attendants. Whether the Greeks and Romans were in the habit of taking draughts of hot water by itself at their meals, is a point which, though of no great importance, has been much discussed by antiquarians, without ever being satisfactorily determined. Freinsheim, Butius, and others, who have compiled express treatises on the subject of ancient drinks, adduce a long line of authorities in support of the affirmative side of the question; but most of the passages on which they rely are, at best, of equivocal interpretation. When we find the guests at an entertainment, or the interlocutors in an ancient drama, calling for hot and tepid water, it does not follow, that this was to be drank unmixed; the water so required might be merely for diluting their wines, or for the purposes of ablution. And although Pleistonicus, with the view of obviating the injurious effects of wine, may have enjoined, that, during the winter season at least, draughts of hot water should be swallowed previously; yet there exists no evidence to show that his counsel was much relished by his countrymen, or that the practice ever generally obtained. On the contrary, there is reason to believe, that the habitual use of such mawkish potations was confined to those who took them as a remedy for the disagreeable consequences of their debauches, or to persons of an infirm state of health, for whom they were directed as an article of regimen; as may have been the case with the prosing pleader whom Martial describes as speaking against time, and refreshing himself with frequent draughts of tepid water in the intervals of his speech; and whom he advises to drink the water of the Clepsydra, and thus put an end to his harangue and his thirst together. That the prescription was not always followed from choice, may be seen from those lines of the same poet, in which he expresses his loathing of hot water, and his joy at the prospect of a speedy return to liquors of a more grateful temperature. So far, indeed, was mere hot water from being considered a luxury by the Romans, as some have absurdly imagined to be the fact, that we find Seneca speaking of it as fit only for the sick, and as quite insufferable to those who were accustomed to the delicacies of life.

In certain conditions of the stomach, however, as in that which arises from too free indulgence in the pleasures of the table, or from the use of gross and indigestible food, it cannot be denied, that hot water will allay the uneasy feelings more effectually than cold; and, as the Romans were notorious for their intemperance in eating, we shall probably find in this circumstance the true explanation of their frequent calls for that sort of beverage. The same usage, originating no doubt from the same causes, existed in France during the middle ages. In the ancient monasteries, as we learn from St. Bernard, when the vintage had failed, it was customary to serve hot water to the monks instead of wine; and in the time of Champier, who wrote at the commencement of the sixteenth century, the passion for hot drink prevailed very generally among all classes of people.*

CHILD'S NURSE.

As a general rule, it is undoubtedly a duty incumbent upon every mother to nourish her own infant; occasionally, however, when from disease, or some constitutional infirmity, the mother is incapacitated from performing this delightful task, it becomes necessary, as well for her own good, as that of her offspring, to transfer the care and nourishment of the latter to a proper nurse. We have thought, therefore, that some general remarks upon the qualifications which should be sought for, in her who is to assume the responsible office of foster mother, would not be unacceptable to a large portion of our readers—while from our remarks on this subject, mothers themselves may acquire a useful hint, even though they should not be placed under the disagreeable necessity of committing the rearing of their infants into the hands of another.

It is important, in the first place, that the female at whose breast a child is to be nourished, should be in the prime of life: between twenty and thirty years is the most desirable age, though a few years below or beyond this period will be of little importance, provided she is of a good constitution and enjoys perfect health. This latter is an all essential requisite, upon which the due support of the infant and its future health in a very great degree depend. No female, therefore, should be selected as a child's nurse who is labouring under any bodily infirmity, or who is strongly predisposed to consumption, scrofula, or convulsive diseases.

But it is not merely necessary that the foster mother should enjoy the physical advantages just enumerated; she should pos-

Henderson—Hist. of Ancient and Modern Wines, p. 98. et seq.

sess, likewise, great mildness of disposition, considerable cheerfulness, and an inexhaustible stock of patience. There are a number of moral defects which render a female totally unfit to give nourishment to an infant, or to assume charge of it in any manner. Thus, an irritability of disposition, giving rise to frequent gusts of violent passion, has been known to produce so deleterious an effect upon the milk as to render the child liable to convulsions, that partakes of it during or immediately after such exhibitions of ungovernable temper. Grief, envy, hatred, fear, jealousy, and peevishness, likewise, independently of their abstracting the mind from the duties necessary to be fulfilled towards the infant, by their effects upon the health of the constitution, alter the qualities of the milk—cause it to disorder the stomach of the child, and render it altogether unfitted for its nourishment. We seldom take sufficiently into consideration the pernicious and long continued, if not permanent influence which the character of a nurse may have upon the temper, the intellectual powers, and inclinations of an infant, by producing permanent derangement of digestion, and consequent imperfect nutrition, and disturbance of the nervous system.

The ancients evince, by their writings, a far greater acquaintance with this important truth, than exists at the present time, if we may judge from the advice of Plutarch to mothers who refuse to nurse their own offspring. "They should, he remarks, be cautious, at least to choose carefully the nurses and attendants of their children—not taking the first that offer, but rather selecting the best that can be obtained. These should, in the first place, be Greeks in morals; for not more attention does the body of man require from the period of his birth, to insure the growth of his limbs in strength and symmetry, than does his mind, in order that to his moral qualities may be imparted the same firmness and perfection as to his physical. During the period of infancy the tender and plastic mind *receives* readily whatever impression, and assumes whatever form we may desire to give it."

The diet of a nurse should be a subject of strict attention—the quality of the food she takes exerting a powerful influence upon the character of the nourishment she imparts to the infant at her breast. Her food should consist of such wholesome aliment as is in ordinary use, simply cooked, and eaten in moderation—soups, properly prepared, fresh beef or mutton plainly roasted or boiled, with a proper amount of vegetables, is to be preferred to made dishes, rich gravies, and highly seasoned viands, as well as to salads and smoked meats. As to vegetables, the different leguminous and farinaceous seeds or roots, variously prepared—the saccharine fruits of the season, either cooked or perfectly ripe, and the various dishes consisting of milk and vegetables, are well

adapted as food for a nurse, and should compose a considerable portion of it. The acid fruits—pickles and similar articles, very generally prove injurious to her milk, and of course to the infant. Her drink should be water—simply water: fermented and distilled liquors, as well as strong tea and coffee, should be strictly abstained from. Never was there a more absurd or pernicious notion, than that wine, porter, or ale was necessary to a female whilst giving suck, in order to keep up her strength, or to increase the nutritive properties of her milk. So far from displaying such an effect, when taken in any quantity they produce others directly the reverse. Moderate daily exercise in the open air, which, while it is sufficient to counteract the effects of her sedentary occupations, is not carried to the extent of producing fatigue, should never be neglected.

The place in which the nurse resides, if an infant be committed to her charge in her own habitation, is far from being indifferent. It should either be in the driest and most healthy part of the city, or what is preferable, in a healthy situation in the country—always freely ventilated and kept scrupulously clean. A country residence for a nurse, remarks a judicious French writer, has one important advantage—it indemnifies, in some degree, the infant for its removal from the maternal breast, particularly when the latter inhabits the confined illy-ventilated streets of a crowded city—the air of which is always more or less prejudicial in early life. Infants have been found invariably to suffer in health when, after being accustomed to respire the pure air of the country, they are removed to the city and respire the confined and impure air which fills too many of its streets and dwellings.

CHILBLAINS.

Few individuals, we suspect, have been so lucky as to have escaped, through life, the disagreeable, often intolerable sensations produced by chilblains of the feet, or as they are familiarly termed frosted feet. They consist in painful swellings of a deep purple or leaden hue, which attack the fingers, outer side of the hands, but especially the toes or heels, during cold weather. They are always very troublesome, frequently exceedingly painful, and occasionally they are even attended with considerable danger. Old people and children are more subject to these affections than those of middle age—those of delicate habits more so than the robust, and females more than males. Now, chilblains are, in the great majority of instances, the effect of imprudence and neglect, and may, with proper care, be entirely escaped. Their chief cause is imprudent exposure to

severe cold, or the sudden transition from a cold atmosphere to the neighbourhood of a warm fire. Thus, children in particular, after having been in the open air in winter, or when their feet and hands have become benumbed with cold while skating, sliding, or playing in the snow, immediately on entering into the house, place themselves close to the fire or stove, which brings on a re-action in the benumbed parts—which, from a state approaching torpidity, are roused suddenly to a very high degree of action. The effect is, that in the extremities, in place of the vessels sinking down to their healthy grade, a degree of inflammation is excited in the skin of the part, attended with a burning sensation and intolerable itching, the irritation resorted to for allaying the latter augmenting, frequently, the original mischief. The skin often cracks and gives discharge to a thin fluid; at other times small dark-coloured blisters arise, which, breaking, occasion troublesome, ill conditioned sores.

A current of cold air rushing into a warm room, beneath a door, is, among delicate and sedentary females, a very frequent cause of chilblains—in the ordinary mode of heating our rooms by an open fire or grate, the feet are always exposed to a current of cold air, blowing from every crack and crevice in the room towards the fire.

The means by which this painful complaint is to be prevented are evident, from what has just been said in relation to its cause. They are, first, to avoid exposing the hands and feet to cold and damp. To do this effectually, soft woollen gloves and stockings, with stout leather shoes and boots should always be worn out of doors in winter; and in wet weather, as an additional preventive, gum-elastic over-shoes should not be neglected. When, however, from any cause, the hands and feet have become very cold, they should be gradually warmed—until this is effected, a warm fire should not be approached. Washing or bathing the hands or feet, when they have been exposed for a long time to cold and wet, in tepid water, followed by brisk friction with a coarse towel, will often prevent any injurious consequences. Drafts of cold air upon the feet should likewise be avoided—which, however, will be found a very difficult matter, until by a more general introduction into use of heated air as a means of warming our apartments, the present fashion of open fires and grates can be dispensed with. Of the mode of curing chilblains we have nothing to say—this can only be directed safely by a physician, who shall take into consideration the peculiar circumstances of each individual case. We warn our readers, however, against the host of quack remedies, and domestic salves and plasters, which, though generally vaunted as infallible, often excite more suffering than the disease itself, or render the unfortunate individual who has been induced to make trial of them, a cripple for life.

CURD—CHEESE.

After the separation of the cream, or oily part, from the milk, the remainder spontaneously coagulates into a soft, but somewhat consistent mass, in which the serous portion of the milk is still contained. Soon, however, the coagulum becomes acid, when a separation takes place between the curd and the whey.

The curd, or the part which remains after all the cream and whey have been removed, contains, undoubtedly, a very considerable amount of wholesome nutriment, and is well adapted to be the food of healthy individuals of laborious habits. This is more particularly the case when it has been obtained by artificial means, than from the spontaneous coagulation of the milk.

Curd obtained in both ways constitutes a very considerable portion of the aliment of many nations. In some of the southern provinces of Europe, curd was, at no very remote period, if it be not now, almost the only solid food used by the agricultural classes, and whey their chief drink. Among the Laplanders, we are informed, it is, also, in very common use, especially when it has become acid. It being then used by them as a condiment to their other food in place of vinegar.

The curd, notwithstanding its nutritive properties, especially when it contains a considerable quantity of the cream, is nevertheless much more difficult of digestion than fresh milk. It is hence not so well adapted to be the food of the sedentary, nor of those in whom, from any cause, the process of digestion is slow and difficult. The principal form, however, in which curd is eaten, is when it has been deprived, by pressure, of nearly all the watery parts, and dried—constituting then the well known substance, cheese. But it is seldom that the curd alone is made use of in the manufacture of cheese, hence the qualities of this latter differ according to the greater or less amount of the cream which enters into its composition; it differs, also, according to the nature of the milk from which it is made, the mode of its manufacture, and its age. It is the custom in some countries to add to it various vegetable substances, which produce, likewise, a modification of its properties.

Cheese made entirely from curd is extremely indigestible, and adapted only to the most robust stomachs. As a general rule, indeed, all kinds of cheese are difficult of solution in the stomach, and as an aliment, can, with propriety, be made use of only by the healthy, the strong, and the laborious, especially those who are of temperate habits, and are engaged in active employments in the open air. Such persons would, in fact, appear to require an aliment which, while sufficiently nourishing, is not rapidly digested. We are now speaking of cheese in its recent state, or

which has been prepared and preserved in such a manner as to undergo but little change. In general, however, cheese acquires with age new properties, becoming more stimulating and less nutritious. This arises from a spontaneous decomposition which takes place in it, by which a certain amount of ammonia and of some other salts are developed. It is this which gives to it its peculiar sharpness, and, in some measure, its taste and smell. In such condition, cheese can, with safety, be made use of only in very small quantities as a condiment along with other food. By the sedentary and dyspeptic generally, it should be eaten with great caution. The idea entertained by many, that a portion of old cheese, taken with the dessert, aids digestion, is perfectly absurd.

Certain epicures and individuals of certain northern nations prefer cheese which is advanced very nearly into a state of putrefaction. When in this state, there can be but one opinion in regard to its pernicious effects.—Divested almost entirely of its nutritive properties, and disgusting at once to the taste and smell of all in whom these senses have not been completely vitiated, it should be banished by every prudent person from his list of eatables; it is fit only for the use of those nations, wherever they may exist, whose habitual beverage, we are told by a sapient writer, is composed of train oil. Almost the same remarks may be made in regard to cheese replete with various insects. On a former occasion* we described certain changes which cheese occasionally undergoes, in consequence of which it becomes poisonous.

Cheese, though most commonly used in its raw state, is by many persons toasted, that is, heated over the fire, so that a portion of its oil is separated and fried, while the other parts acquire a tougher consistence. Though we will not say, that thus prepared, cheese is absolutely indigestible, yet it is so to a very great degree, while it is liable to produce painful sensations of the stomach, sick head-ache, acrid eructations, feverish heat of the skin, and disturbed sleep. A few persons have a decided aversion to cheese, so that it can neither be seen, smelt, nor tasted by them without exciting nausea or other uneasiness. This is owing to a certain constitutional peculiarity, which cannot be explained satisfactorily, and which is exhibited in regard to various articles of food besides that under consideration, that, by the mass of mankind, are esteemed as of the most tempting flavour, appearance and taste.

Cheese is an article of diet not well suited to children: it is very apt, in their excitable systems, to give rise to unpleasant symptoms of longer or shorter duration. When eaten by adults, it should always be combined with a large portion of bread.

* See Vol. II. page 73.

BREAD FOR THE DYSPEPTIC.

"THE stomach," says Dr. Mease, in his valuable treatise on Sick Head-ache, noticed in our last number, "is the seat and throne of this disease, and affects the head by means of that sympathetic connexion which it holds with it and every organ of the human body." Of course the kind of food to be used by the invalid, thus affected, becomes a question of great importance. The following instructive remarks from this work, on bread, will be duly appreciated by our readers.

"As bread constitutes so large a portion of our daily aliment, and forms a most important item in the articles by which a cure of this distressing com plaint is to be effected, it demands the first notice.

"Bread should be light, and none other must be touched. There is no excuse admissible for heavy bread. If corn bread be used, it should be eaten in the form of thin, crisp cakes. I cannot conceive a more injurious article of diet, to a weak stomach, than the hot corn bread of the southern states. No wheaten bread should be eaten, unless twenty-four hours old. Economy* and health unite in proscribing fresh bread as an article of diet: for, however palatable, it is highly injurious to the stomach, and tries its powers more than almost any other of the causes of disease. During the years of youth, when the natural vigour of the stamina is daily deriving an accession of strength,—or, in constitutions enjoying greater powers of the stomach than are absolutely required for the purposes of digestion, fresh bread may be eaten with impunity for years; but I will venture to assert, that every meal in which it is taken, will detract some little from the powers of that organ; and that, in time it will show its effects. As an attachment and relish for bread one day old is acquired in a short time, the sooner the former is left off the better: *indeed a cure must not be expected, so long as the use of fresh bread is indulged in.*

"In cases of severe affliction from the disease, and where a disposition to acidity prevails in the stomach, it is advisable to lay aside raised bread altogether, and to substitute shipbread or crackers, or rice boiled dry. Where the teeth have failed, biscuit may be soaked in cold water, a short time before they are wanted. Bread made from unbolted wheaten flour is to be preferred to white bread."

OFFICIAL TESTIMONY AGAINST ARDENT SPIRITS.

IT is a pleasant thing to see men of observation and experience giving their official recommendation and sanction to the cause of temperance. Facts have long since shown, not merely the utter inutility of drinking ardent spirit, but the ruin of health, reputation, and fortune, which this practice is so apt to produce. The false and vitiated appetite of some, and the vile policy of others, who, in opposing temperance, thought that they were

* The London bakers, in their answers to the questions put to them by the committee of the house of commons in England, appointed during the scarcity of the year 1801, to devise means of affording relief, asserted that three stale loaves were equal to five fresh loaves.

ministering to the prejudices of the crowd, have contributed to distort these facts, and to blind people to their real interests in this question. The revilers and sneerers at temperance, will now begin to discover that they paid their fellow citizens a poor compliment, by supposing that any class of people could prefer such beastly indulgence, as drunkenness, or even the feverish disturbance produced by more moderate doses of liquor, to the tranquil enjoyments which follow that well regulated state of the animal economy, which is due to the suitable excitement of the senses, by their appropriate stimuli, as of food, light, air, &c. The eulogists and defenders of even the moderate drinking of ardent spirits must begin to discover their utter ignorance of the matter; they must see moreover, that theirs is the essentially low and vulgar doctrine, adverse alike to sound physiology, pure morality, and to patriotic legislation and obedience to the laws. Let the timid, who in their hearts admit the superior comforts of entire abstinence, take courage from the following opinions recently expressed by some of our public functionaries. Let the time servers, the lovers of good, provided they are with the majority or the *magnates* of the land now come out more boldly. Even their voices and persuasions may be of some use to arrest the downward course of the ignorant or depraved, of those who drink liquor because they know no better, or because they have become accustomed to it.

We would recommend to our readers the following patriotic sentiments and opinions of the chief magistrate of Pennsylvania, in his late message.

"But whilst we are indulging in congratulations with regard to the general prosperity of our common country, and adverting to the extensive artificial improvements constructed and in progress in our own commonwealth, may I not be permitted, at the same time, with the sensations of unaffected exultation and delight, which the deep interest all must feel in the subject, cannot fail to inspire, to direct your attention to, and to congratulate you upon its recent extraordinary moral improvement, exemplified in the gradual, but clearly perceptible, decrease of crime of every grade and description, and especially in the manifest diminution of the number of victims to that most degrading of all vices, intemperance, the genetrix of crime, and to which most vices owe their depraved origin: but upon which the philanthropic efforts of the wise and the good every where, aided by the force of public opinion, have stamped the seal of reprobation, and doomed it to such an overwhelming measure of odium and ineffable contempt, as even the unfortunate votary, with habits the most inveterate and confirmed, cannot assume the hardihood to brave or to resist. The entire prohibition of the use of ardent spirits to persons employed upon the public works, now constructing by the State, would, there is reason to believe, greatly aid in still further extirpating this loathsome and destructive moral contagion from amongst us, be attended with the most happy consequences to the individuals themselves, and produce results highly beneficial to their employers and to the State.

Coincident with these sentiments of Governor Wolfe, are those

expressed by the Secretary of War, in his Annual Report, Nov. 1831. Gen. Cass, after stating that a very large proportion of all the crimes committed in the army, may be traced to habits of intemperance, very properly recommends, as a preventive and remedy of these evils, that ardent spirits should no longer form a component part of the ration. Gen. Cass has been a soldier in every variety of hazard and exposure, and well knows, from his own personal experience of the advantages of habitual abstinence throughout life, that alcoholic poison ought not to enter a man's lips even under the plea of imparting to him additional power to sustain fatigue or ward off sickness. It invites both.—We give that part of the Report,—in which this subject is treated as well in reference to the soldiers as to the poor Indians.

"A very large proportion of all the crimes committed in the army may be traced to the habits of intemperance. This vice is in fact the prevalent one of our soldiery. I am satisfied that ardent spirits should not form a component part of the ration. By issuing it, we furnish to those already accustomed to its use, the means of vicious indulgence; and we invite those, who are yet temperate, to acquire this destructive habit. It is certainly sufficient for all useful purposes, if there be in truth any utility in the consumption of ardent spirits, that the officers be authorized to grant permission for its purchase, in proper quantities, to those whose situation may require it, without the direct agency of the government in allowing and providing it.

There were issued to the army, in 1830, 72,537 gallons of whiskey, at the cost of 22,132 dollars. If this sum were applied to the purchase of tea, coffee, and sugar, for the use of the soldiers, their habits and morals would be greatly improved, and the discipline and respectability of the army promoted. The regulation of this department, by which an offer is made to the soldier of commuting the whiskey ration by the payment of one cent, is productive of little advantage. In this estimate of the value of this part of the ration, reference has been had only to the actual average cost of the article, delivered in large quantities at the various posts. But this is unjust to the soldier. He estimates it very naturally at the retail price, averaging probably five cents, and the present offer of commutation is in fact to ask him to sell his whiskey for one-fifth of its value. It is far better to leave the troops no choice, but to allow them a liberal compensation, and in such articles as will be most useful.

The Secretary of War, among other means of security for the Indians, in their new establishments on the other side of the Mississippi, recommends,

"A determination to exclude all ardent spirits, from their new country. This will, no doubt, be difficult; but a system of *surveillance* upon the borders, and a proper police and penalties, will do much towards the extermination of an evil, which, where it exists to any considerable extent, is equally destructive to their present comfort, and their future happiness.

The sentiments of the Secretary of the Navy, are equally decided against the use of ardent spirits, by the crews of public vessels.

LADY'S BOOK.—COMMENCEMENT OF A NEW SERIES.

In catering for the amusement of their patrons, the publishers have sought to obtain materials of an interesting, novel, and diversified character; and although they have not been able hitherto to present much in the shape of Original contributions, they have always cherished a proper regard for Native Talent, and have been zealous and persevering in their efforts to obtain it. With this view, it will be seen by the annexed advertisement, that a liberal premium of 200 dollars has been offered by them for the best American Tale; and there is no doubt the competition for the honour of the award will be contested by writers of the highest distinction. A secondary premium of 50 dollars is also offered for the best poem suitable for publication in the Lady's Book. It is reasonable to conclude then, that the attractions of the succeeding numbers of the work will be manifold—they will be increased both in the character of its contents, and the beauty of its external appearance. The publishers have made engagements for a new and excellent paper, on which to print it; and they also propose to make some improvements in its typographical appearance. The music type which they have selected for its use, is of the most approved kind; and, in future, the accompaniments, entire, will be given with the music they select for publication.

The present No. for December, completes the 3d volume: it is embellished with several beautiful and costly Engravings—the Title page, particularly, has been worked up in imitation of gold, which is a very expensive mode of printing, attended with incalculable trouble, and as a highly ornamental and gratifying display of the arts, deserves particular attention. Besides which there are, a splendid engraving on steel, of "THE WIFE;" *The latest London Fashions for Caps and Bonnets;—A View of the King's Bridge and Royal Barracks, at Dublin;—The Woodpecker* and the *Wood Lark;—Two favourite pieces of Music*, with the accompaniments; also, *a general Table of Contents for the volume.*

The publishers have a few copies of the last six numbers remaining on hand, with which they will be happy to supply new subscribers—as these will form a connexion with the future numbers, all who desire the work complete will of course commence with them. Persons who have not seen the Book, may have a specimen No. by addressing the publishers (post paid) to that effect.

The publishers are desirous of obtaining, as early in the succeeding month as possible, an estimate of the number of copies of their work which may be subscribed for, so that they may know what edition they will be obliged to publish—it is earnestly requested therefore, that all new orders for the Book may be forwarded at once; by doing so, those who wish to secure a copy of it will not be disappointed.

Agents procuring Ten new Subscribers to the Lady's Book, and remitting the cash, besides the discount which is allowed in such cases, shall be presented with a copy of the 3d volume of the work, superbly bound. The publishers will have the work carefully packed up, and subject to the orders of the persons entitled to it.

The Lady's Book is published on the 1st of every month—contains nearly 60 pages each No. of neatly printed letter-press. Terms, $3 per annum in advance. Address (post paid) L. A. GODEY & CO. 112 Chesnut street, Philadelphia.

PREMIUMS.—The publishers of the Lady's Book, impelled by a sense of gratitude for the unprecedented patronage which has been bestowed upon their work, and anxious to improve its character by every means in their power, have determined to offer the following premiums; viz.—

200 DOLLARS for the best *Original Tale*, written for the Lady's Book.

50 DOLLARS for the best *Original Poem*, suitable for publication in the Lady's Book.

Competitors for these Premiums, will address their communications, *free of postage*, to L. A. GODEY & Co. No. 112 Chesnut st. Phila. before the 1st of June, 1832, at which time, as many as shall have been received, will be submitted to a committee of literary persons, whose judgment shall award the prizes.

Accompanying each communication, the name of the writer must be furnished. If secrecy is preferred, the name may be enclosed in a separate sealed envelope, which will not be opened except in the case of the successful candidate.—It will, of course, be understood that all articles submitted for these premiums will be absolutely at the discretion of the publishers.—The publication of the Tales and poems will be commenced immediately after the award is made.

Editors of papers exchanging with the Lady's Book, and others friendly to the promotion of Literature, are requested to give the above a few insertions in their respective papers.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, January 11, 1832. No. 9

Truly there is magic in a name. We see this remark illustrated in many of the affairs of life, from the revolutions of kingdoms, down to the disturbances in the nursery economy. Under the banner inscribed liberty and equality, excesses the most lawless, and measures the most tyrannical, have been before now effected, and an intolerance, which under pure and undisguised despotism, would never have been allowed, is quietly submitted to. The worship of the goddess of Reason, has been performed by acts and ceremonies the most unreasonable and absurd; and glory, as the guide, has led to a series of battles and wars, as disgraceful in their execution, as inglorious in their result. Is it necessary to bait and worry into disgrace, if not death, an inflexible republican, demagogues have but to affix on him the term aristocrat and monarchist. The name is indeed too often every thing. In the medical profession, similar illusions abound. We will suppose that a person dies in the summer season in one of our cities, after a few days sickness; having, in the mean time, suffered much from pain and distress in the stomach and head. It is reported as a case of bilious remitting fever; perhaps one of a high and violent grade. So far all is in order: people are accustomed to this kind of fever; or at least their ears are familiar with the name. But let some sceptic declare that the case was one of yellow fever, and the whole city is thrown into alarm; people are hurrying away as from the plague, under the influence of fears which they cannot well define. If a person should ask, is the yellow fever more extensive in its range than the bilious

fever; is it contagious while the other is not; are the means of prevention much more difficult in one case than the other? Physicians would reply to him, and to the public generally, in the negative: but still the alarm would not subside, and it would be sufficient to cry out yellow fever, to set the whole city once more in a ferment. So, again, we nurse the like illusions in respect to the age of the parties suffering. Some hundred children have died in Philadelphia in the course of the summer months with cholera; they are often carried off in a very short period of time, often are in a state of great anguish and distress; but the disease is cholera infantum; it comes every year; we are accustomed to it; and unless it cuts off some member of our own family, we feel no very deep interest in its progress and history. But let it be noised about that there were in one week two or three deaths from spasmodic or epidemic cholera, and we should hear nothing but the enforcement of quarantine regulations, proclamations from health offices, and perhaps prayers offered up in the churches, to avert the spread of the threatened pestilence. After all, is the last mentioned disease more contagious than the other, or more readily warned off by sapient proclamations? Not a whit. Are we to hope that a special interposition of Providence will be displayed in our favour, in carrying off one disease rather than another, because we are frightened about the former, more than the latter? Theologians will reply to this question.

In winter epidemics, we are deceived with equal readiness by a name. Typhus pleurisy, cold plague, spotted fever, putrid sore throat, are names of alarming import: but influenza sounds so soft, it seems so often to be merely a fashionable and foreign substitute for common catarrh or a cold, that it fails to excite uneasiness. No allowances, all this time, are made for the differences in bodily vigour or in age, and of freedom from other diseases; and people are slow to see that the same state of atmosphere, the same accidental exposure which will give a common cold to a young person, that shall last a certain time, and end in health, may, and does speedily prostrate beyond recovery, and terminate in the death of an aged parent. Were this difference of result only occasional, and to be found in seasons of epidemic visitation or of influenza, alone, we should not deem it our duty to dwell so emphatically on the facts of the case. But we are desirous of fixing public attention on the general principle that cold, especially when conjoined, or alternating with moisture, is peculiarly unfavourable to the free play of the functions of the animal economy. Hippocrates, in one of his aphorisms, represents cold as an enemy to the nerves: and so it assuredly is—diminishing, and if long applied, deadening sensibility and preventing the evolution of animal heat. It impedes, moreover, the free play of the respiratory organs, and depresses the activity of the heart, and circulation generally. Nor

is it necessary, in order to produce some of these deleterious effects, that cold should be so excessive as to benumb and deaden the skin and extremities: in what some would call a moderate degree of it, the functions may be greatly disturbed, and perverted from their customary rhythm. This is more especially the case in those whose powers of life are feeble, either from their organs not having yet attained their full size and proportionate development, or from their having been worn down by long use. The two classes in these states are children and old people. They are readily and permanently affected by a cold, or what is called a raw air, which is unpleasant by its chilliness, without being, as measured by the thermometer, very cold. Winter, or the winter half of the year, is the period, therefore, peculiarly inimical to children and old people, whose supply of animal heat is barely enough for their own purposes, and who cannot part with any to the circumambient atmosphere. The least debility in persons far advanced in life, is apt to be followed by impeded and difficult respiration; and by no other means is this debility so soon induced, as by the sedative influence of cold and moisture. An air of this kind is also directly oppressive to the lungs, by impeding the customary secretion, or discharge of their vapour and mucus; and hence the aged person thus circumstanced, soon dies, in a measure suffocated.

In children, the suppressed function of the skin, by long or sudden exposure to a cold and damp atmosphere, is followed by a suffocation nearly similar to that described, unless speedy measures be adopted to remove it. Sometimes this state is exhibited in the form of croup, or disease of the lining membrane of the upper part of the windpipe; sometimes there is alteration and suffusion of the membrane lining the minuter branches of the windpipe, constituting bronchitis, or catarrhal fever.

These diseases in the two classes of subjects just indicated, do not require a new or peculiar state of the atmosphere, different from that of common winters, for their production. Sudden and intense cold, following a mild season, is capable of giving rise to them; and the records of nearly every winter of this description, show great mortality among old people, and those otherwise enfeebled. Were authorities necessary to corroborate this assertion, we could cite the names of Blanc, Heberden, and Bateman, who have exhibited the number, complication, and violence of epidemics in this season.

The practical and available inference from all this is, to prevent, with exceeding care, the sudden or protracted operation of cold on aged or infantile subjects; to forego, during the winter months, all the false theories of inuring them to the inclemencies of the season by exposure of the skin, either to cold air or a cold bath; but rather to keep the due and full supply of animal heat

by warm clothing, especially in the night, and by air of a pleasant temperature, by means of open fires, stoves, or furnaces—the last being the preferable plan. Frictions of the skin, and the occasional use of the warm bath, will be found useful auxiliaries, especially in the case of the very aged. As contributing to the same end in these persons, a good substantial, and yet easily digestible, food is to be freely allowed: this is one of the best means of keeping up the vital warmth, and preserving the nervous system from feebleness, and the senses from becoming obtuse. It will be found infinitely superior to the diffusible stimuli of ardent spirits, or the habitual use of wine—since the excitement to which it gives rise is not, as in the latter case, either confined to the stomach, or radiates unequally to particular parts, such as the head or chest—but is diffused through the whole animal economy, being as extensive as nutrition itself, which is performed by molecular movements in all parts of the body.

Again we say, let those who cry out effeminacy, and are extolling the hardening process, call to mind the practice of the Russians, and the other people of northern Europe, who avail of every possible means, by skins of sheep up to the most costly furs, golashes, or boots, lined with flannel over their common shoes when they go out, and by rooms warmed with heated air, and furnished with double windows and doors, to keep off the sensation and effects of cold.*

Opium Eaters.—To Baber, the founder of the Mogul dynasty, India is indebted for the introduction of its melons and grapes; and to his grandson, Jehangire, for tobacco. For the introduction of opium, we have no date; and it is not even mentioned in the poems of Chund. This pernicious plant has robbed the Rajpoot of half his virtues; and while it obscures these, it heightens his vices, giving to his natural bravery a character of insane ferocity; and to the countenance, which would otherwise beam with intelligence, an air of imbecility. Like all stimulants, its effects are magical for a time; but the reaction is not less certain; and the faded form, or amorphous bulk, too often attend the debilitating influence of a drug, which alike debases mind and body. In the more ancient epics, we find no mention of the poppy-juice as now used, though the Rajpoot has at all times been accustomed to his *madhava-ra-peala*, or intoxicating cup! The essence, called *arrac*, (whence *arrack* and *rack*) whether of grain, of roots, or of flowers, still welcomes the guest, but is secondary to the opiate. *Umul lar kana*, to eat opium together, is the

* See Journal of Health, vol. ii. pp. 81, 141, 151-2.

most inviolable pledge; and an agreement ratified by this ceremony, is stronger than any adjuration. If a rajpoot pays a visit, the first question is, *Umul kya*, have you had your opium? *Umul kao*, take your opium.—*Tod's Annals of Rajast'han.*

SPRAINS.

There are few things in which people commit more serious errors, than in the management of the various accidental injuries to which the human body is liable. There is nothing, nevertheless, in which they are more fond of interfering. The increase of suffering which their unskilful management so often produces—the conversion by it of a trivial accident into one implicating a limb, or even the life of an individual—convey to many of these would-be-surgeons no warning lesson, nor deter them, in any degree, from pursuing, in other instances, the same reprehensible course. We propose, on the present occasion, to offer some few remarks on the proper course to be pursued in cases of sprains; not with the view of teaching people to be their own surgeons when such an accident has occurred, but to point out to them how they may avoid increasing the amount of injury they have sustained, previously to the arrival of surgical aid.

In the first place, we would remark, that injuries inflicted upon the joints are always attended with serious consequences, unless their management be conducted from the very first with proper skill. When of any extent, injuries of these parts produce a very rapid and extensive swelling, which renders it impossible often for any one but an experienced surgeon to determine whether the joint has suffered merely a sprain or a dislocation; if the treatment were to be conducted on the supposition that the former only was the case, when in fact the latter had taken place, every one will readily perceive that the patient will run the risk of being rendered lame for life. To determine the very nature and extent of the accident, therefore, requires a minute acquaintance with the anatomy of the parts affected, which no one but a professional man can be expected to possess.

In sprains, complete rest of the part is all-important; immediately, therefore, after the accident has occurred, the patient should be laid in a horizontal position, if the injured joint be one of those appertaining to the lower extremity, or to the trunk of the body. In sprains of the shoulder, elbow, or wrist, a sitting posture is to be preferred, the limb being supported in a sling, or by being laid upon a table. An elevated position of the affected part is also necessary. By allowing it to hang down, the pain and suffering of the patient are increased, and the rapidity and extent of the swelling are always greater.

All handling or twisting of the sprained joint must be carefully avoided, as it tends greatly to augment the injury. A vulgar prejudice very generally prevails, that sprains require to be *set*, in the same manner as a dislocated bone; and accordingly the joint is pulled, kneaded, and twisted by the ignorant bystanders—increasing in this manner the agony of the unfortunate sufferer, and retarding materially the cure. The tendons, ligaments, and occasionally the muscles about the injured joint, have all suffered a violent distention or twisting, by which their sensibility is greatly increased; and in consequence, they are liable, upon the application of the least additional irritation, to become violently inflamed. This can, in fact, only be prevented, in all considerable sprains, by keeping the part at perfect rest; and by the use of soothing and sedative applications.

Tight bandaging a sprained joint, with the view of preventing it from swelling, is another injurious practice commonly resorted to. So far from preventing the tumefaction of the injured part, it very generally invites and increases it. As a general practice, it is far better to leave the joint, until the arrival of the surgeon, entirely uncovered and exposed to the air.

Warm or even hot fomentations, or poultices and irritating washes and liniments, are other favourite remedies with the vulgar in cases of sprain. These applications do harm, however, in nearly every case—increasing the pain and swelling, and accelerating the occurrence of inflammation. If any application be made to the part before professional assistance can be obtained, it should merely be a soft linen or muslin cloth, wet with cold water; or when prejudice is too strong to allow the use of so simple a remedy as water, it may be medicated by the addition of a little vinegar.

BED FOR THE SICK.

In no occupation do the agents of fashion and of luxury appear less appropriately employed, than in the preparation of a bed for the repose of the sick. The soft luxurious couch, with its costly canopy and impending drapery, its many and sumptuous coverings, may be requisite to gratify the feelings of pride and of vanity; but it ministers but little to the comfort of its occupant, when labouring under disease. In many cases of disease, a bed of this description would be absolutely prejudicial.

The most scrupulous attention to neatness and to cleanliness, is always an important consideration in the apartment and couch of disease. A neglect of the first, impresses often the mind of the patient with feelings of a sombre and melancholy cast, even though during health he may have exhibited an indifference to it; while a neglect of the second will tend either to augment the

malady with which he is afflicted, or to convert it into one of a more unmanageable and malignant type.

Both feather and down beds, are improper or inconvenient in most diseases. In such as are attended with any considerable degree of fever, or of external inflammation, in particular, they do harm. By accumulating the heat about the body of the patient, they increase his restlessness, his feelings of uneasiness or of pain, and the burning temperature of his skin; all of which symptoms it is important, by every means within our power, to abate. The most appropriate bed for the sick is undoubtedly a mattrass, formed of some soft elastic material, as, for example, horse-hair. When, however, a mattrass of the latter cannot be procured, one composed of moss, or straw, or what is still better, of the husks of the Indian corn, properly prepared, should be adopted in its stead. A couch of this kind will be found sufficiently soft and comfortable, even by the most delicate individuals; or it may be rendered so, by interposing a blanket or two between it and the patient's body. The pillow, or support for the head, should be made of the same materials. Whenever the brain is the part principally affected, or the disease is one in which that organ is particularly liable to suffer, a soft pillow of feathers, in which the head readily sinks, has a tendency to increase the pain, delirium, and other unfavourable symptoms of the case.

The proper amount of covering to the bed must be regulated, in some measure, by the nature and period of the disease, as well as by the season of the year, the state of the weather, and other circumstances. Whenever the patient's skin is preternaturally hot—that is to say, whenever he is labouring under a decided paroxysm of fever, whatever may be the season of the year, the covering of his body should be extremely light. In summer a linen sheet is sufficient, and even in winter a very slight addition to this will suffice. If, however, the patient be chilly, or his surface is covered with perspiration, he will require to be more warmly enveloped. An absurd opinion is entertained by many, that in cases of small pox, measles, scarlet fever, and other eruptive fevers, the body should be kept warm, either by an abundance of covering, or by increasing artificially the temperature of the room. Precisely the reverse, however, is the case: by increasing the heat in this manner, the symptoms of the disease are invariably aggravated; but on the contrary, a reduction of the temperature by light clothing, and exposure to cool fresh air, will have an opposite effect.

In all febrile cases we believe that linen is a preferable material for the bed clothes, in immediate contact with the body, to one either of cotton or wool. It is cooler on the one hand, and less apt, on the other, to imbibe and retain the vitiated excretions from the skin. In various low and chronic cases, however, or

where the sick person is liable to profuse perspirations, cotton or woollen is to be preferred.

The importance of cleanliness in every thing that appertains to the bedding of the sick has already been adverted to. To maintain this, a frequent change of the bed clothes will be required. A proper opportunity should, therefore, be taken, if not daily, at least at such short intervals as the nature of the disease shall, in the estimation of the medical attendant, admit of, to remove the patient from the bed, and to change the clothing of the latter, and of his own person, for others perfectly clean and well aired. Before the patient rises, attention must be paid, according to the season of the year and the nature of his disease, to have the room of a proper and equable temperature.

Curtains to a sick bed, are, generally speaking, improper. They confine the air which the patient breathes; in consequence it becomes more quickly contaminated, and its temperature unduly increased. Now in all diseases a continual supply of fresh, and in fevers of cool air, also, is of importance. It is by preventing this that curtains, particularly if drawn around the bed and reaching to the floor, are prejudicial. If they be used at all, they should at least never be drawn lower than the middle of the bedstead. All the advantage they afford in certain cases of guarding against a draft, or of increasing the warmth of the patient, when the latter is proper, is better attained by a proper position of the bed, or by additional covering.

If the apartment be sufficiently large, the bedstead should occupy the middle of it—or, at least, should be so situated as to be easily approached by the assistants on either side. It should never be placed between a window and door, or in any other position by which the patient is liable to be exposed to a draft of cold air.

A bedstead for the sick should not be elevated too high from the floor, as this renders, in many instances, those offices which are necessary for the comfort of the patient, or in the administration of his remedies, difficult to be performed.

THE EYE-LASHES.

The beauty and expression of the eye is not altogether dependent upon its colour and brilliancy. It may sparkle with intelligence and wit, or mildly beam with benevolence, innocence, or pity; and yet if it be overhung with a flat and shaggy eyebrow, or but imperfectly shaded with eye-lashes, composed of a few short bristles set wide apart, much of its beauty will be lost. Hence we find those who place most importance upon external

charms, have been in almost every age extremely solicitous to improve and preserve the form and symmetry of these important appendages to the organ of sight. Without stopping to notice the plans pursued at the toilet of the East to give a darker hue to the eye-brows, and by the females of other nations to form them into a slight and perfect arch, we propose to say a few words upon the beauty of the eye-lashes.

We need not dwell upon the importance to beauty of long, silken, glossy eye-lashes, which have so often been the theme of lovers and of poets. Lord Byron, who to all the enthusiasm of an eastern lover, added the deep feeling of a poet, has hung some of his finest gems on a beautiful eye-lash: one example will be sufficient.

> As a stream late conceal'd
> By the fringe of its willows,
> Now rushes reveal'd
> In the light of its billows,—
> As the bolt burst on high
> From the black cloud that bound it,
> Flash'd the soul of that eye,
> From the long lashes round it.

While the females of our own country, as well as those of most parts of Europe, pay little attention to promote, by artificial means, the growth and beauty of their eye-lashes, in Circassia, Georgia, Persia, and Hindostan, this is one of the first objects of a mother's care. We mention this not as a reproach to the former, nor as a commendation of the latter, but merely as a matter of fact.

It is well known that the hair, when left to itself, seldom grows long; but either splits at the top into two or more forks, or gradually tapering from the root, terminates in a very fine almost invisible point. When this is the case its further growth is completely arrested. The Circassian female, aware of this fact, carefully removes the fine point from each eye-lash by means of a pair of scissors. Every time this is done, their growth is renewed, and they become long, close, finely curved, and of a silky gloss. This operation of tipping is repeated every month or six weeks.

Excepting among the ancient Romans and the modern Chinese, large eyes have ever been esteemed essential to beauty. By this test alone, we may distinguish whether an antique statue of Venus, or of Juno, be Roman or Grecian; the classic Greeks having more taste than to represent a goddess with small peering miserly eyes. Homer, indeed, seldom mentions Juno without comparing her eyes to those of an ox. The oriental poets drew a more elegant simile from the large-eyed antelope or gazelle, which has not escaped Lord Byron.

> Her eyes' dark charm 'twere vain to tell;
> But gaze on that of the gazelle,
> It will assist thy fancy well.

The brilliancy of the eye, and its appearance of fullness, depend, in a great measure, upon its form, and on the magnitude of the eye-ball; but still in no slight degree upon the closeness and amplitude of the eye-lashes, and the diameter of the pupil. It is the eye-lashes only over which art possesses any power—the perfection of which, as we have seen, may be increased by a very simple process. But this is not all—the oriental beauties have, from time immemorial, practised the art of darkening the eye-lashes with a pigment, which is applied to the hairs themselves, and to the skin at their roots, while a small streak of it is often extended outwards from the exterior angle of each eye. Although we are far from recommending this practice to our fair readers, yet it has certainly a very imposing appearance when artfully performed. It is said to give a brightness and beauty to the eyes, altogether inconceivable, making even the plainest little grey eyes appear full orbed, and piercingly dark. Upon ourselves, we confess that the effect in these cases would be entirely lost, from the moment we became aware of the artifice by which it was produced. Though admirers of beauty, we should prefer a pair of eyes possessed of a very moderate portion of it—"but speaking of modest thoughts and intellect refined," to all the charms these organs can acquire from artificial means.

RAPID SPREAD OF INFLUENZA.

We borrow from a small work, just published,* the following notice of the great and rapid diffusion of the influenza:—

"Of all the known epidemics, the influenza is the one which extends itself the most quickly and to the greatest distance. In all its various visitations it has either occurred simultaneously over a whole continent, or has spread with an amazing rapidity from one country to another, until finally every portion of the habitable globe is included in its circuit. Passing the widest seas, it has attacked the inhabitants of opposite continents, who had not the slightest intercourse with each other. Its effects have also been traced at sea as well as upon the land. At the same time that the inhabitants of the country from which he had sailed, or to which he is destined, are attacked with the disease, the sailor, in the midst of the ocean, thousands of miles from any shore, feels its influence.

* "An Account of the Origin, Symptoms, and Cure of the Influenza, or Epidemic Catarrh; with some Hints respecting Common Colds, and Incipient Pulmonary Consumption. Philadelphia, Henry H. Porter, 1832."

"In 1782, the fleet of Lord Anson sailed for the coast of Holland, and that of Admiral Kempenfelt for France. The crews of both fleets were in perfect health at the time of sailing; but in the same month, almost in the same week, both were attacked very generally with the influenza, so much so that the latter fleet was obliged to return home for want of hands to man it."

"In 1781 and '82, the influenza appears to have shown itself first in China, and to have spread through Asia into Europe, from whence, crossing the Atlantic, it extended itself, in the ensuing year, to America, the whole continent of which it traversed, from the Canadas to Peru, illustrating another observation respecting epidemics, that in countries subject to them, the vitiated atmosphere is often in an ascertained direction. The fever which in 1809, 1810, and 1811, afflicted the districts adjacent to the Pylney mountains in the East Indies, travelled with a certain degree of regularity in one quarter from north to south, and in another quarter from south to north.

"In its several visitations in this country, the epidemic has generally made its appearance in one of the eastern states, and has extended southward along the seaboard, with more or less rapidity. In 1807, however, it appears to have shown itself first in New York, spreading thence, as from a centre, in every direction. It reached Canada in October, and extended to the western and southern states, and even to Havana, in the course of three months. The amazing rapidity with which it diffused itself over the whole country, resembled more the fleetness of the wind than the natural course of a disease: almost the entire population of a city, town, or neighbourhood, became in a few days subjected to its influence; and as is seldom incapacitated those affected by it from pursuing their ordinary occupations, it was common to observe in every street and place of resort, such coughing, hawking, and wheezing, as to interrupt conversation; while in public assemblies, the voice of the speaker, itself scarcely audible from the hoarseness produced by disease, was completely drowned by the coughing concert kept up by his auditory. In its occurrence during the present winter, nearly the same phenomena have been observed; very shortly after it made its first appearance in Philadelphia, most of the inhabitants of the city and surrounding country, were affected by it to a greater or less extent, while subsequently it has attacked the inhabitants of nearly every part of the United States. Some months previously to its appearance here, it prevailed extensively in a very severe form in London and various other parts of England.

"Some idea of the quickness with which the disease extends itself from place to place, may be formed from the foregoing statements, and the following additional facts.

"In 1732, the influenza made its appearance in Edinburgh,

about the 17th of December, having previously been epidemic in Saxony, Hanover, and the neighbouring states of Germany in the month of November.

"In 1733, it commenced at London and in Flanders during the first week of January; at Paris, about the middle of the same month; and in Ireland, towards its termination; at Leghorn, about the middle of February, and at Naples and Madrid near the end of the month. This same year it made its appearance in America, about the middle of October, being, as usual, first observed in the New England states. It was soon afterwards prevalent in the islands of Barbadoes and Jamaica, and in a few months is said to have extended to Mexico, and to Peru.

"In 1789, the influenza made its appearance first in New York, in the month of September, and was prevalent during the same month in Philadelphia; soon after, it spread over the whole of the eastern and southern states, and to the army in the north-western territory, under the command of General Wayne. The first appearance of the disease in the island of Jamaica, was on the 20th of October, about one month after its occurrence in Philadelphia. At Grenada it appeared in November, and at St. Lucia, towards the close of December."

REVERSE OF THE PICTURE.

—"Then to turn from the bright side of the picture to the dark one. To

> The huts where poor men lie,

where the elegancies and amenities of life cast not their glow,

> But frosty winds blaw in the drift
> Ben to the chimla lug,

upon shivering groups who have but little defence of fire or clothing from its bitterness. Where no light laugh rings through the room; no song is heard; no romantic tale, or mirthful conversation circles amongst smiling faces and happy hearts, but the father,

> Ill satisfied keen nature's clamorous call,
> Stretched on his straw himself lays down to sleep,
> While through the rugged roof, and chinky wall,
> Chill on his slumbers piles the drifty heap.—Burns.

When the mother sees not her rosy and laughing children snugly consigned to their warm, soft beds, but contemplates with a heart deadened with the miseries of to-day, and the fears of to-morrow, a sad little squalid crew around her, who, instead of pleasures and pastimes, know only wants and evils which dwarf both body and soul. Where, perhaps, illness has superadded its aggravations, its pains and languors to a poverty which renders the comforts and indulgences of a sick room the most hopeless of all things.

These are the speculations to enhance our fireside pleasures, and to make those pleasures fruitful; linking our sympathies to the joys and sorrows of our kind, and arousing us to a course of active benevolence."*

GOOD WATER—NEW YORK.

We received, some months back, a copy of the memorial addressed by the Medical Society of New York to the Common Council of that city, recommending the adoption of suitable measures for having a supply of pure water for the inhabitants. The request for us to insert this memorial, would have been earlier complied with, but for its having been long mislaid. Omitting preliminary matter, we copy as follows:—

"The impurity of the water now in use throughout the greater part of the city, is so very obvious to every one, that it would seem almost unnecessary to offer any analysis of it. The Society will therefore only remark, that it holds in solution a variety of elementary substances, which, when subjected to proper analysis, are found principally to consist of the sulphates of soda and lime, and the muriates of lime and soda. It is questionable whether all these saline substances exist already formed and are barely held in solution—for, by the process of analysis, the elementary matter becomes more concentrated; different particles are brought in juxta position, which facilitates the formation of compound bodies. Hence it is certain that one at least of the compound substances, discovered by analysing the water of this city, is formed during the analysis. It is evident that such a variety of foreign matter held in solution, in the water we drink, may, under different circumstances arising from different conditions of the digestive organs, produce highly deleterious effects.

"In addition to the saline substances found in our water in such large quantities, there are a variety of other ingredients of a very offensive character. The infiltration of water through all kinds of corruptible materials, which must necessarily abound in every part of the city, renders it very impure. The water is so completely surcharged in many places with corruptible matter, that in warm weather, a very few hours' exposure to the temperature of the atmosphere, will make it offensive to the smell, an evidence of approaching putrefaction.

"It is evident that water loaded with such a variety of heterogeneous materials, must be almost entirely unfit for most purposes of domestic use. It is also evident that the active and offensive matter, with which the water is impregnated, must be to many persons highly injurious. That it is more or less so to every one, is undoubtedly the fact. To infants in particular, whose tender and susceptible organs are easily excited and thrown into disordered action, it is a fruitful source of disease. Bowel complaints, of the most intractable kind, are frequently produced by it. In adults, a number of complaints are justly attributable to impure water. Strangers, when they first arrive in this city, are almost uniformly injured by drinking our water. It is true the human system can become accustomed and accommodated to almost any thing. It is nevertheless a fact, that a continued application of noxious agents, though the effect may be less obvious, will have a tendency to undermine the constitution and hasten its decay. We often see indi-

* Howitt's Book of the Seasons.

viduals, confined in apartments where infectious matter is abundant, continue in tolerable health, whilst others similarly exposed would soon be destroyed. But is it not folly to infer, that because some escape acute disease, therefore such apartments are healthy? It is the same with respect to our water. Hundreds will affirm that it has never injured them; and at the same time it has, in conjunction with other causes, brought many to a premature grave.

"Besides its directly injurious effects upon the system, we have a right to attribute other evils to our unwholesome water, which in a moral, as well as medical point of view, are of a serious character. Many persons are in the habit of mixing with the water, spirituous liquors in order to obviate its injurious effects. They hence acquire a habit of intemperance, which, superadded to the noxious quality of water, in process of time, brings on a train of complaints of the most disastrous kind. Unjustifiable as the practice unquestionably is, and highly to be condemned by every friend of morality, the plea of necessity which these unfortunate persons will urge in their defence, will apply with powerful force against those who have the power, but have hitherto neglected to provide healthy water.

"Our laws are very strict in guarding against the introduction of corrupted meat into our markets; and are yet perfectly silent with respect to the introduction of impure water. Every one must be aware, that pure water is as essential to health as untainted meat; and it is even more so, for it can be used in a greater variety of ways conducive to health.

"Could an abundant supply of good and wholesome water be introduced into this city, so that every family might have as much as would be necessary for drink and all domestic purposes—could our streets be purified and kept clean, by frequent washing—could every family have a sufficient quantity for ablution and bathing; the benefit resulting to the health and comfort of the inhabitants would be beyond all calculation, and infinitely outweigh any expense that might arise in procuring it. This great and growing city would then, instead of being reproached for an unpardonable neglect of one of the greatest blessings of life, advance with great rapidity, in population, and every thing calculated to elevate the character of man, and improve the health and consequent happiness of the people.

"It is with the greatest humiliation and most unfeigned regret, that this society is compelled to admit the disgraceful inferiority of the moderns, in this respect, to those of ancient days. Every city that made any pretensions to civilization and the comforts of life, was abundantly supplied with water of the best kind. And we observe among those ruins which have withstood the wreck of ages, the only memorials of an unknown people, aqueducts and fountains, constructed with admirable skill and ingenuity, remaining as eternal monuments of the wisdom and intelligence of the people of former times.

"As members also of a free republic, enjoying the rights and privileges which a free and enlightened government affords, we are mortified in observing how much more despotic rulers have, in many particulars, consulted the happiness and comfort of the people.—Most European cities have an abundance of pure water. So essential is this considered to health and convenience, that it claims the first attention of the legal authorities.

"Although the Medical Society was principally induced to address the Common Council upon the subject of water, because it has an important influence on the public health; they would nevertheless as citizens, leaving the question of the unwholesomeness of it altogether out of consideration, earnestly invite the attention of your honourable body, to the important advantages that would result, to the growth and prosperity of New York—destined at no remote period to be the first city in the world—could it be furnished with an ample supply of good water. Without this, though her citizens could have every other convenience of life, their happiness would be

very much abridged. The Society therefore entertains no doubt but that the Common Council, renowned for their liberality and munificent support of every thing calculated to promote the public welfare, will immediately give the subject that consideration which it so eminently deserves. With this impression, this memorial is respectfully submitted to your honourable body.

John S. Bowron, M. D.	S. W. Avery, M. D.
Lewis Belden, M. D.	D. L. M. Peixotto, M. D.
David L. Rogers, M. D.	A. P. Wilson, M. D.

At a meeting of the Medical Society, on motion, it was—

Resolved, That the memorial be adopted, and transmitted to the Common Council, and also be published in the public papers.

S. W. Avery, Secretary.

SKATING.

Skating, says Strutt, in his Sports and Pastimes, is by no means a recent pastime; and probably the invention proceeded rather from necessity than the desire of amusement.

It is the boast of a northern chieftain, that he could traverse the snow upon skates of wood. We cannot by any means ascertain at what time skating made its first appearance in England, but we find some traces of such an exercise in the thirteenth century, at which period, according to Fitzstephen, it was customary in the winter, when the ice would bear them, for the young citizens of London to fasten the leg bones of animals under the soles of their feet by tying them round their ancles, and then taking a pole, shod with iron, into their hands, they pushed themselves forward by striking it against the ice, and moved with a celerity equal, says the author, to a bird flying through the air, or an arrow from a cross-bow; but some allowance, we presume, must be made for the poetical figure: he then adds, "at times, two of them, thus furnished, agree to start opposite to one another, at a great distance; they meet, elevate their poles, attack, and strike each other, when one or both of them fall, and not without some bodily hurt; and, even after their fall, are carried a great distance from each other, by the rapidity of the motion, and whatever part of the head comes upon the ice, it is sure to be laid bare."

The wooden skates, shod with iron or steel, which are bound about the feet and ancles like the talares of the Greeks and Romans, were most probably brought into England from the Low Countries, where they are said to have originated, and where it is well known they are almost universally used by persons of both sexes when the season permits. In Hoole's translation of the Vocabulary by Commenius, called Orbis Sensualium Pictus, the skates are called scrick-shoes, from the German, and in the print at the head of the section, in that work, they are represented longer than those of the present day, and the irons are turned up much higher in the front.

Some modern writers have asserted, that "the metropolis of Scotland has produced more instances of elegant skaters than perhaps any other country whatever, and the institution of a skating-club, about forty years ago, has contributed not a little to the improvement of this amusement." The Londoner will, however, claim superiority for the exhibitors on the Serpentine river in Hyde Park. On one occasion, four gentlemen danced, if we may be allowed the expression, a double minuet in skates with as much ease, and more elegance, than in a ball-room.

PHILADELPHIA VACCINE INSTITUTION,

Established in the year 1822, *with the approbation of Professors Physick, Chapman, James, Gibson, and Coxe, of the University of Pennsylvania, Doctors Monges, Hartshorne, Hewson, &c. &c.*

The Subscribers to the above Institution, those practitioners who have for the last fifteen years obtained their supplies of Vaccine Virus from the undersigned, and the profession generally throughout the United States; are respectfully informed, that applications for Vaccine Virus will be attended to as usual, at all seasons of the year, and at one day's notice, by the undersigned.

JOSEPH G. NANCREDE, M. D.
S. E. Corner of Walnut and Tenth Streets, Philadelphia.

January 1, 1832.

N. B. The Vaccine Virus can be safely transmitted by mail to any section of the country.

JOURNAL OF INSTRUCTION,

Conducted by "The Philadelphia Association of Teachers."

The first number of this work will be issued from the Literary Rooms, No. 121 Chesnut street, Philadelphia, Office of the Journal of Health, on the second Wednesday in January, and will be regularly continued on the second and fourth Wednesdays of every month, on a medium sheet, in quarto form, at $1 25 per annum. All Agents for the Journal of Health are requested to act as such for the above work.

ANNALS OF EDUCATION AND INSTRUCTION,

United with the American Journal of Education, conducted by William C. Woodbridge, assisted by several friends of Education. Boston, published by Carter & Hendee. Terms $3 00 per annum, in advance.

Subscribers in arrears—and, under the circumstances, they are more numerous than we had a right to expect—are requested to remit, without delay, their dues to the publisher, H. H. Porter, 121 Chesnut street.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, January 25, 1832. No. 10.

The Asiatic, or the epidemic spasmodic cholera, so long the engrossing subject of conversation, of doubt and dismay, on the continent of Europe, begins now to divide public attention, in Great Britain, with the reform bill itself. As a question of really momentous interest to the whole civilized world, we deemed it our duty to lay before our readers a brief, but, as we hoped, a lucid history of the beginning and progress of this dire disease, together with such notices of its modes and times of invasion, and the circumstances modifying its attack, as should place its true features in a clear point of view. Both when treating expressly the subject, as well as when speaking of epidemics in general, we took occasion to express our belief that the cholera is not a contagious disease; that quarantine regulations in regard to it are uncalled for, and unjustifiable, and only serve to trammel commercial intercourse between nations; and, in fine, that the system of *cordons sanitaires*, as adopted, either originated in ignorance of the true nature of cholera, or in a sinister and unholy spirit of government policy to cover some ulterior designs, adverse to the happiness and liberties of the people. We instanced the case of France establishing her sanatary cordon to prevent, as was alleged, the contagion of yellow fever from crossing the Pyrennees, just before the invasion of Spain, by the army under the Duke d'Angouleme. We also, at the risk of being thought presumptuous speculators by those who had not given their attention to the subject, stigmatized the repressive measures of Austria, in establishing a sanatary cordon along her frontiers of

Hungary and Gallicia, during the latter part of the short but bloody contest between Poland and Russia. It was our opinion that the Austrian government feared more the contagion of Polish independence and liberty than it did the Russian cholera.

Close on this expression of our opinion follows its verification. The last accounts from Vienna are to the following effect :—The cordons between Hungary, Austria, Poland, and Silesia are done away with, and all the cholera hospitals are to be speedily closed: all persons dying with cholera are allowed to be interred, with all religious ceremonies, publicly in the ordinary burying ground, which was previously not permitted, even in cases of persons of the highest ranks. We took occasion, when censuring the sanatary cordons, to mention among the evils which they inflicted, the interruption to trade. As a practical commentary, showing the correctness of our opinion, we may be allowed to call the attention of our readers to a sentence contained in the accounts, just referred to. After stating that the cordons were done away with, it is said—"*Trade in general has, in consequence, become very brisk here,* (at Vienna) *especially with Hungary, Gallicia, and Russian Poland, where all articles of manufacture and luxury are wanting.*"

The Austrian government has, we are told, become fully convinced that cholera is not contagious, and hence the doing away with its former restrictions. But is there not good reason for believing that the termination of the Polish war alone has opened its eyes to this matter; and that its fears respecting an intercourse with free Poland have subsided, now that Poland is once more enslaved and a Russian province.

We shall proceed to lay before our readers a series of facts, touching the first appearance and subsequent diffusion of cholera in various parts of India, Persia, Russia, and Poland, which will go to prove, as far as evidence can prove, that the disease is not contagious. Perhaps we shall be found, at times, repeating what we have already advanced in the former pages of this journal; but the importance of the subject, and the necessity of our fellow-citizens generally entertaining correct notions respecting it, will justify any such repetition. We shall borrow also, with freedom, from an article in the North American Medical and Surgical Journal, for October last, in which we took occasion to give the history of the disease somewhat at large.

In India the medical officers of the army were the only Europeans in easy circumstances who had occasion to enter the particular districts where the cholera prevailed; hence we find a greater number of them fell victims to the disease than of the European population generally; nevertheless the whole number of physicians who were attacked was, in fact, but very trifling. We have the most unquestionable evidence that in hospitals,

those in attendance upon the sick very generally escaped the disease, which is as strong a proof as could be offered of its non-contagious character. At Nagpoor, says the Bengal report, the medical staff remained for several days, night and day, in the hospitals, and yet all escaped. In the Hospital of the Royals, says the Madras report, only one individual out of one hundred and one attendants was attacked. In the general hospital in India it is stated, upon the authority of assistant surgeon Whyte, that the friends and relations of the sick, who, by assisting the patients into and out of the bath, and every other way, were thereby exposed to be attacked by the disease, whether it be conveyed through the medium of an infected atmosphere or by the touch, in no instance were affected; neither were the dooly bearers nor hospital assistants. In Deputy Inspector Farrell's Report at Columbo in Ceylon, we have nearly as strong evidence of the non-contagiousness of the disease: he remarks also that it has been known to attack patients admitted into the hospital for other complaints, and to have carried them off with its usual rapidity, and not to appear again in the same hospital, although it raged in all directions around it.

The introduction of the cholera from a foreign source, though boldly asserted in reference to several of the Indian and Russian provinces, by the advocates of contagion, has not in a single instance been satisfactorily proved. On the contrary, all the facts which have been collected are in favour of the opposite opinion. Thus, into the Isle of France it is said to have been imported by the Topaze frigate, which arrived from Ceylon on the 29th of October, 1829; but it appears from the report of Dr. Kinnis, that cases of the disease had occurred in the island on the 5th and 6th of September, although the disease did not prevail extensively until the 18th of November, when it broke out in its most severe form among the African slaves and Indian convicts. A considerable number of sailors belonging to merchant vessels, lying near the shore, died of the disease, whereas not a soul belonging to the Topaze, which lay about a mile and a half from shore, but communicated constantly with it, was attacked after her arrival. But one patient and no hospital attendant was attacked at head quarters. No children, and a very small proportion of women were affected.

At Ceylon, according to Deputy Inspector Farrell's Report, it was found that the disease, on appearing at any one place, attacked *almost at the same instant*, a vast number of persons, who, from their habits, modes of life, and separation of their abodes, could not possibly have communicated it to one another.

The governor of the island of Bourbon, when informed of the occurrence of the epidemic in the neighbouring island of Mauritius, took immediately every precaution to cut off the commu-

nication; but in defiance of the most rigorous quarantine, the disease made its appearance among the inhabitants of Bourbon.

The strictly epidemic character of the cholera is evinced in its occurrence on board of ships at sea, that had not touched at any place where it was prevalent. Troops, also, were attacked on a march through an open country, and officers in their boats on the Ganges, far from any source of contagion.

In reference to the cholera in Persia, we learn, among other facts, the following highly interesting ones, which tend to show that non-intercourse with the sick or quarantine restrictions afford no protection to those who have not yet had the disease.

During the prevalence of the epidemic at Tabriz, a city in Persia, 10,000 or 12,000 of the royal troops passed near the city. They were prevented by guards, stationed at the gates, from entering it, but several of them spent the day under the walls. During the next day, however, the disease manifested itself among them, and they suffered from it very severely. The occurence of the disease in this case can be readily accounted for upon the supposition of an aerial cause, but not upon that of contagion.

Again we are told, on the same authority, Dr. Cormick, that the persons composing the family of the Persian prince quitted the city of Tabriz after the violence of the epidemic had already begun to abate. They, however, carried the cholera along with them, and continued to be attacked from four to six a day, for about ten days; but *not a single person of the villages through which they passed, or where they slept, took the disease.* We find, also, that the dispersion of collected masses of people, a large part of whom were labouring under the disease, as in the religious assemblage on the banks of the Ganges, or their removal to a dry, elevated, and more healthy situation, as in the instance of the Marquis of Hasting's army, so far from spreading the disease, by forming so many foci of contagion, was sufficient to prevent its further spread even among themselves.

Although numerous details respecting the cholera in Russia and Poland have not yet transpired, we are in possession of a valuable body of facts, which show that the disease is not contagious.

During the epidemic, Dr. Albers informs us,* it is certain that about 40,000 inhabitants quitted Moscow, of whom a large number never performed quarantine; and, notwithstanding this fact, *no case is on record of the cholera being transferred from Moscow to other places;* and it is equally certain, that in *no situation* appointed for quarantine, *has any case of the disease occurred.*

A strict investigation was made into what was called the first four cases which occurred in Moscow, and it was proved that the patients had neither themselves been in any infected

* Report to the Prussian government.

place, nor had communication with any coming from such a place.*

The strictest investigation by the Russian physicians could furnish no evidence of the cholera being introduced into the province of Orenburg by caravans from Kiachla or Boukara. The last caravan which arrived at Orenberg, reached that place on the 22d of July, thirty-five days before the first case of cholera had occurred there; the individuals of which it was composed were all in good health, and in crossing the steppes, which takes from thirty-three to ninety days, they lost only one of their company, of a disease under which he had laboured for twenty days, and certainly, therefore, not cholera.

The fact of the disease not spreading among the attendants of the sick is confirmed by the official report of the extraordinary committee of physicians assembled at Moscow, by order of the emperor, who add, that "convalescents have continued to wear clothes which they wore during the disease, even furs, without having been purified, and they have never had a relapse. At the opening of bodies of persons who have died of the cholera, to the minute inspection of which four hours a day for nearly a month were devoted, neither those who attended to these dissections, nor any one of the assisting physicians, nor any of the attendants, caught the disease, although, with the exception of the first day, scarcely any precautions were used."

As this fact of the immunity of those in immediate attendance upon the sick is, in our opinion, sufficient to overthrow the opinion of the disease being communicable by contagion, we must be permitted to add the strong testimony of Dr. Smirnov, staff physician at Orenberg, as recorded by Professor Lichtenstædt. During two months while the disease prevailed at Orenberg, and two hundred and ninety-nine patients were admitted in the military hospital, the personal attendants on the sick remained entirely exempt from the disease. They consisted of one hospital assistant, six pupils, as many Baschir lads, and fourteen hospital servants, in all twenty-seven; and their duties were to perform blood-letting, apply leeches, poultices and frictions, and to administer baths and the like, so that they were compelled to be constantly breathing the exhalations from the bodies and clothes of the sick, as well as to handle and touch them. The same immunity was enjoyed by certain officers and subalterns who lived in this hospital, were in the sick wards once a day, and at other times were in constant communication with the hospital assistants and pupils. The washerwomen of the hospital likewise escaped, who, it is well known, are extremely apt to suffer from diseases actually contagious.

Dr. Albers, in his report to the Prussian government, observes,

* Dr. Walker's Report to the British government.

that in Moscow there have been cases fully authenticated, where nurses, to quiet timid females labouring under the disease, have shared their beds during the night, and that they, notwithstanding, have escaped uninjured, in the same manner as physicians in hospitals have, without any bad consequence, made use of the warm water which, but a few moments before, had served as a bath for patients labouring under the cholera.

But more conclusive facts still remain to be told, to prove that the cholera is not contagious. The official report of the medical committee, established by the Emperor at Moscow, states, that a physician who had received several wounds in dissecting the bodies of those who had fallen victims to the cholera, continued his operations, having merely touched the injured parts with caustic. He did not contract the disease. A drunken invalid, an assistant in dissections, having also wounded himself, had an abscess, which doubtless showed the pernicious action of the dead flesh, but the cholera did not attack him. Dr. Foy, an eminent physician at Warsaw, in a letter to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, states, that he exposed himself in every manner to the infection; he infused into his own veins the blood of an individual who was dying of cholera; inhaled the breath of patients suffering under the disease; and even tasted the matter ejected from their stomachs, without sustaining any injury from the experiment beyond a slight nausea and head-ache.

FRICTIONS OF THE SKIN.

We have not as yet, we believe, treated in a formal manner of the advantages of frictions to the surface, as a means of preserving health; though we have occasionally adverted to them incidentally.

There are few persons, even those who are accustomed to daily exercise of the most active kind, in the open air, who will not find their health improved and their pleasurable sensations increased, by frictions of the skin, with a flesh brush or coarse towel, regularly employed. The ancients placed so high a value on this species of exercise, as they termed it, that they scarcely passed a day without it. Servants, (*strigillati*,) with all the implements necessary for practising it, were to be found at all the public baths, and in many private mansions. Diligent friction of the skin, is said to have been one of the means which Cicero used to restore his health, after he had become so reduced, that his friends and physicians advised to leave off pleading. By the moderns, but little attention is paid to this useful practice. Many who keep grooms to curry and rub down their horses, and who are particularly cautious to see that in respect to these animals neither is

neglected for a single day, would, themselves, escape some of the uneasy feelings to which they are occasionally subjected by bodily infirmities, and add not a few years to their comfortable existence, were they to apply frictions to their own bodies night and day. Few are ignorant of the very great importance of currying, in rendering horses sleek, and gay, and supple in all their limbs; without it, however much and good the food allowed them, they will seldom be found in good condition. Now, precisely the same effects will result from frictions of the skin in the human subject, especially after the use of an appropriate bath, or often sponging the body with cool or tepid water. In both the horse and man it acts on precisely the same principles. It removes thoroughly from the surface every species of impurity which may accidentally adhere to it—promotes the freedom of the blood's circulation in the minute vessels of the skin, and insures the regular and perfect performance of the important functions of that organ. It promotes the growth and development of the muscles—invigorates the digestive organs, and imparts a comfortable glow and an increased energy to the whole system, by which it is rendered less liable, during cold and changeable weather, to become affected with disease. The ancients, it is said, had the art of rendering fat people lean, and those that were emaciated fleshy, partly by means of a proper course of active exercise generally, but more especially by the diligent use of frictions of the skin.

Though useful to all, frictions are peculiarly adapted to increase the health and vigour of persons of debilitated habits who lead a sedentary life, are subject to dyspepsia, gout, and rheumatism, or who are particularly liable to be affected by cold or slight variations of atmospheric temperature. Their whole bodies, more particularly their limbs and the anterior part of the trunk should be rubbed for half an hour at least, morning and evening, with a flesh brush or coarse towel, until the surface begins to grow red, and assume an agreeable glow. In many cases premising the use of the warm bath, or sponging the body with cool or tepid water, will be found to increase the good effects to be derived from the practice. Frictions are highly useful in the case of delicate females; and in children they promote their growth and activity, and prevent many of the diseases to which they are liable.

The effects of friction, when resorted to with care and constancy are, we assure our readers, far more important than those who have not tried the practice would imagine. Though it is not capable of affording all the advantages derivable from exercise in the open air, which, in fact, nothing can supply, yet it is certainly the best substitute that can be possibly suggested.

The best time for using friction, is in the morning and evening, but especially the former, when the stomach is not distended with

food. Those who are subject to wakefulness and disturbed sleep, will find, in addition to a properly regulated diet and active exercise in the open air, that sponging the body with tepid water, followed by brisk frictions of the surface, will more effectually induce quiet repose than any other means.

EPIDEMIC CONSTITUTION OF THE ATMOSPHERE.

From the work on Influenza, noticed in our last number, we obtain the following particulars respecting the increased mortality in some of our cities, owing to the existing state of the atmosphere.

"During the present winter, while the influenza was prevalent at New York, the deaths in that city amounted in one week to 187, a number very unusual at this season of the year, and seldom equalled in the most sickly periods. In the last five years, the greatest number of deaths in any one week, was 204. The average number throughout the year, is about 100. On referring to the Inspector's returns, we find that the unusual portion of the deaths, during the week alluded to, were caused by diseases of the lungs and throat; only 11 are set down to the credit of *Influenza*, but there were 43 from *Consumption*, 17 from *Inflammation of the Lungs*, 13 from *Croup*, and others by different diseases, liable to be generated or aggravated by influenza, sufficient to still further swell this class.

"In the following week, or that from December 17th to the 24th, the deaths were 203, of which but 8 are reported as from influenza, while there are 38 from consumption, and 45 from other diseases of the lungs, to say nothing of small-pox, the deaths from which were 16, nor scarlet fever, the mortality by which was 10. There were 8 deaths reported as from intemperance.

"In Philadelphia, we find the deaths in one week, from the 10th to the 17th December, a period when the influenza was very rife, to have been 175. Of these, about 70 were from various forms of inflammation of the lungs, or of its membranes, such as bronchitis, catarrh, consumption, hooping-cough, croup (hives,) inflammation of the lungs, influenza, measles, and pleurisy; without including eleven deaths from scarlet fever, some of which are doubtless referable to the present atmospheric constitution. During the following week, from the 17th to the 24th of December, the deaths were 189, of which 97 were from the diseases above enumerated; besides 7 from old age, some of which were owing to the present constitution of the atmosphere. In the first of these two weeks there were 23, and on the second, 27 deaths from consumption of the lungs. During the fortnight there were 10 deaths of persons between 90 and 100 years of age; and 38

deaths of those between 70 and 100. During this same period, (two weeks,) there were but 19 deaths from influenza, so called. The average weekly mortality for a period of ten years, ending 1st January, 1830, was rather more than 71 persons.

"In Boston, we learn that more deaths took place during the week included in the same period as the first mentioned above, than have occurred in that city in any one week for the last twenty years."

For detailed directions respecting the means of prevention and cure of the influenza, we would refer to the work itself. Much practical instruction will be found also, in the concluding part, in reference to common cold and threatened consumption, interesting to the invalid, and not without value to the physician.

LIABILITIES TO AN ATTACK OF CHOLERA.

The circumstances under which the liability to a person's being attacked with cholera is greatest, have been already stated in former numbers of this Journal. The increasing anxiety among all classes of our fellow citizens, to have the requisite information on the subject, induces us to lay before them, at the present time, a summary of what we advanced before, together with some additional matter and illustrative remarks.

The liabilities to be attacked by cholera, as well as by other epidemic diseases, are to be examined, First, in reference to the state of the atmosphere; Second, the moral and physical condition of a people, viewed in mass; and, Thirdly, in the habits of the particular individual.

State of the Atmosphere.—Of the precise qualities of the air upon which cholera and other epidemical maladies depend, we are entirely ignorant, except as manifested by their effects. But there are evident vicissitudes and distemperatures of the atmosphere, which give additional, and even fatal force to the pestilential state, which we have it in our power to measure, and, to a certain extent, to guard against. There are sudden changes from hot to cold, or the reverse; great rains after long drought; unusual continuance of winds from a certain direction, or very variable winds. The season of the greatest atmospherical vicissitudes, is usually that of the worst epidemical disorders; and hence the autumnal months have been those in which the most fatal and wide-spreading epidemics have prevailed.

Although unable to say in what the pestilential condition of the atmosphere consists, we can often measure its range, and have conclusive evidence, that it is not only circumscribed, but for a time stationary. The immediate sustaining or exciting cause of this morbid condition of the air would, on occasions, seem to depend on the nature of the soil, and the want of sufficient ventilation. Thus, in the visitations of Yellow Fever in various cities, and notably in Philadelphia, the infected district, as it has been termed,

was well marked out, being low, of made ground, near the water, in close, confined apartments. People living in it, or going into it from other parts, were in danger of sickening with the fever and dying from it; but the sick whenever removed from it into the upper parts of the city, or into the country, did not communicate the disease to their friends or attendants in the house; showing that it was not contagious, but that it was occasioned by a pestilential atmosphere.

Instances of the circumscribed range and local origin, of a vitiated atmosphere, were evinced in the jail fever, which proved fatal to the judges and audience at the black assizes of Oxford, in 1577, and which affected only those who were present at the assizes: and also, in the deaths, before morning, of the greater part of the members of the English factory, who were imprisoned for a single night only, in a small dungeon, (the black hole,) in Calcutta. The fever originating in prisons, and called jail fever, is caused by a vitiated atmosphere: the air not being sufficiently renewed, and the breath of the prisoners continually impairing its purity. A typhus fever may be produced in the course of a few days, by shutting down the hatches of a ship in bad weather, if there be many people breathing between decks. We can, from these facts, easily conceive that any general deterioration of the atmosphere would be greatly aggravated by these local causes; among which, a crowded population of a city, would be the most conspicuous. It is obvious, also, that if coercive measures are adopted, which should prevent the inhabitants from going into the country and leaving the pestilential atmosphere, the diseases under which they had laboured must be greatly aggravated, and the mortality become excessive.

The fact of the limited range of vitiated atmosphere within which the cholera made its attack, would seem, on occasions, to be placed beyond doubt. Men in perfect health, arrive at a certain spot, and fall down by dozens; some never to rise again, and others to escape barely with life, after excessive pain and torture. Armies have fled from the track of the pestilence, and been safe out of the limits of that track. In other instances, the pestilential cloud seems to have been wafted into the midst of a stationary assemblage, as the camp of the Marquis of Hastings, on the banks of the Sinde; the disease, in this latter instance, rapidly abated after the removal of the encampment from the infected district to the high grounds at Erich.

In evidence of the fact that the cause of cholera was often of such an extent as to be explicable only upon the supposition that it was connected with a morbid constitution of the atmosphere, the statement of Dr. Onufriev, physician for the circle of Orenburg, may be cited. "During the prevalence of the epidemic," he observes, "there was *scarcely a single inhabitant* of the city of Orenburg, who had not some symptoms of disordered digestion. One complained of oppression and pain in the breast; another of pain in the head, some nausea, diarrhœa, and the like. To me it appears that the cause of these symptoms was a general invasion of the systems of the inhabitants by cholera, which, however, was prevented from developing itself in its perfect form, by a regular manner of living, and other similar means. This may be considered as proved by the *almost universal* prevalence of symptoms of

disturbed digestion, their originating without any appreciable cause, especially in persons newly arrived in the city, and their being removed by the usual treatment."

Still we have, after all, conclusive evidence to show that sensible changes and extremes of atmospheric states, are powerfully contributing causes of the cholera. In India, it was observed that the disease was more or less prone to occur in individuals, in proportion to their greater or less exposure to *nocturnal cold and damps, to great and sudden variations of temperature, and to fatigue.* This is proved by the fact, that in the army the disease attacked especially bodies of troops during, or immediately subsequent to their march from one station to another, when they were necessarily exposed to all the causes enumerated.

Of the European officers who fell victims to the epidemic, all, or nearly all, were attacked during a march from station to station. The camp followers, as they are left to shift for themselves, no tents being provided for them, and having seldom the means of protecting themselves by warm clothing from the chills of the night, suffered most of all; next the Seapoys or soldiers; and, last of all, the officers. The almost entire exemption of the *civil* servants of the East India Company from the epidemic, is worthy of notice: they are generally resident for several years at the same station, and when they travel, do so without being exposed to the fatigue or discomfort to which the military are subject. Their intercourse with the natives is much greater, however, than that of the rest of the European part of the community.

Dr. Jœhnichin, a physician of eminence, and member of the council to whom the investigation of the nature of the disease, as it occurred in Moscow, was especially entrusted, states, that the intensity of the disease was in direct ratio to *the dampness of the atmosphere;* the epidemic chiefly prevailing among the lower classes, who resided *in moist and low situations.* Dr. Rankeen attributes the occurrence of the cholera in Bengal, to the conjoint operation of *sudden changes of weather, humid soil,* and *a damp atmosphere,* in connexion, more especially, with a diet of rice or other grain, vitiated by the wetness of the season. Mr. Bell bears testimony to the fact of the occurrence of the cholera during, or subsequent to weather, either very moist and changeable, or strikingly unseasonable.

Liability produced by the Moral and Physical Condition of a people.—In proportion as civilization and refinement—moral culture, and protection against physical ills make progress among a people, their chances of exemption from pestilential epidemics diminish. "The period in the history of Europe the most fertile in calamities, was between the year 1040 and 1486, and is marked with thirty-two destructive plagues; their common interval being twelve years. But in the fourteenth century, the age when disorder and distress had attained their greatest height, Europe had been wasted with fourteen fatal and almost universal plagues. In the two next succeeding centuries, governments began to re-assume their vigour, and removed to a greater distance this common curse of the human race; the scourge of ty-

ranny in governors, no less than of slavish submission in the people. In the seventeenth century, the plague became still less frequent, until at length it has entirely disappeared from civilized and Christian Europe." The general correctness of this view seems to be strikingly confirmed, in the history of the cholera: beginning in India, it has spread nearly over all middle and southern Asia, carrying off, in a few years, millions of human beings—most of them miserable, servile, and ignorant, and debarred either the moral or physical energy to shun the disease, or to bear up under its first assault. Resigning themselves, with slavish fears, to a death which they conceived inevitable, they neither asked nor allowed of the administration of means of relief. In India the mortality was just in the ratio of the lowness of the scale of the inhabitants in society; servants and common labourers in the towns, and camp followers in the army, being the greatest victims; the native soldier next; whilst the Europeans and their officers enjoyed greater immunity from the disease. Those in the civil employ of the East India Company, and merchants, English and native, were sufferers in but a comparatively trifling degree. In China, the disease selected its victims from among such of the people as lived in filth and intemperance. Barbaric Russia, with so many of her inhabitants slaves of the soil, and her soldiers mere automatons—debased in mind and morals—for the most part ill fed and ill clothed—knowing little other excitement than that of drunkenness, next numbers her myriads of victims to the cholera. With the progress of the disease westward to civilized Europe, we find its diffusion to be less, and its mortality in smaller proportion to the population: Poland suffering less than Russia, Austria less than Poland, and Prussia less than Austria.

The nature of the differences between the liabilities of nations to be attacked by the cholera, is still further confirmed by what we have learned respecting the comparative sufferings of the different classes of society. Dr. Cormick, speaking of the cholera as it appeared at Tabriz, says, that the disease first began in that part of the city which is most low, filthy, and crowded with poor inhabitants; and advanced from quarter to quarter of it, finishing its ravages in one before it commenced them in another. It was most destructive in the houses which were low, and possessed most inhabitants.

"Every where in Europe," says Hawkins, and in the statement he is fully borne out by the official documents collected by Professor Lichtenstædt, "every where in Europe the lower orders have been the chief sufferers: the number of remarkable persons, and of nobility, who have fallen victims, has been extremely small; their names, indeed, might be easily enumerated. When such instances have occurred among the affluent classes, they might probably be explained by particular mental anxiety, or a state of predisposing bad health," or, he might have added, to intemperance; as in the case of Marshal Diebitsch, whose attack, it is stated on good authority, was evidently attributable to this cause. "The soldiers of the conflicting armies in Poland have been amongst the chief sufferers; we may easily imagine the privations to which they have been exposed. At Warsaw, the Committee of Health announced, that very few persons of easy condition have been attacked, and that the disease has expended its chief ravages on the poorer inhabitants of

the low and thickly peopled quarter of the city, near the Vistula. At Riga the sailors appear to have been most liable to the disorder."

Among the morbid physical causes affecting considerable portions of a country or city, is deficiency of *food*, or *that of a bad quality*. We have already adverted to this circumstance. Dr. Tytler insists on a deleterious article of food, viz. damaged rice, as the exciting cause of cholera. The agency of improper and indigestible articles of diet, in the production of the disease, is pointed out in the instructions issued by the Russian and Austrian governments. In these, the articles enumerated are, unripe and watery fruits, beer, hydromel, sour soups, mushrooms, cucumbers and melons, salted and spoiled fish, and greasy food generally. The sale of cucumbers and water melons, which were peculiarly abundant in the fall of 1829, was prohibited by the local magistrates of Orenburg, as well as their introduction into the surrounding country. Dr. Walker, of St. Petersburgh, in his Report to the British government, observes, that in Austrian Gallicia, he was informed, "a better diet furnished to the lower orders, at the expense of government, appeared to have contributed, as much as any other measure, to prevent the spreading of the disease."

Habits of the Individual.—The ill clothed and filthy, the intemperate, and those given to any excess, have constituted the greatest number of victims to cholera; while, on the other hand, the temperate and prudent most generally escaped, or suffered but a slight attack. To this fact, nearly all the physicians who have had an opportunity of studying the disease, bear testimony. In the Russian soldiers, whose habits are disgustingly filthy, and whose skin was, in many instances, covered with dirt of more than a line in thickness, the disease in general terminated fatally. Dr. Jœhnichin of Moscow, declares that drunkenness, debauchery, bad food, and personal indiscretions, were incontestably its predisposing causes. Dr. Rieche informs us, that in China, the disease selected its victims from among such of the people as live in filth and intemperance. Dr. Darbel, a French physician resident at Moscow, who, with Dr. Jœhnichin, imagines that the emanations or atmosphere of the sick form a focus of infection, admits, nevertheless, that this atmosphere is dangerous to those only who are predisposed to disease through poverty, misery, drunkenness, debauchery, indigestion, and the effects of cold. A physician of Warsaw states, that the disease spared all those who led regular lives, and resided in healthy situations; whereas they, whose constitutions had been broken down by excess and dissipation, were invariably attacked. Out of one hundred individuals destroyed by the cholera, it was proved that ninety had been addicted to the free use of spirituous liquors. The females, who are rarely given to the use of these liquors, very generally escaped. The agency of intemperance in predisposing to, and exciting the disease, is shown by the fact, that after the decline of the epidemic at Riga, the occurrence of the Whitsun holidays caused a temporary augmentation of new cases, from the indulgence in intoxicating drinks and other irregularities, incidental to a popular festival.

The liabilities to an attack of the cholera would seem, then, from what we have stated, to consist in living in a pestilential atmosphere, the precise condition of which is unknown to us; but which we may, on occasions, by quick travelling, escape from.

2. On obvious extremes and distemperatures of the air; as in sudden and increased coldness after great heat; moisture with cold or heat; and a partially stagnant or stationary air.

3. Residence in low situations, in houses crowded together, and filled with inhabitants.

4. Moral and physical depression; as fear and anxiety, and great fatigue and inanition, or unwholesome and innutritious food.

5. Personal uncleanliness, in a filthy skin; intemperance in the use of intoxicating drinks.

PRECAUTIONS AGAINST THE CHOLERA.

The following valuable document, on the best means of preventing an attack of cholera, and of arresting its spread when it is actually present, will be perused with attention by our readers. We commend it to their favourable notice, and simply premising that the most recent and authentic accounts from England are adverse to the belief of the disease, as it appeared in Sunderland, either having been imported, or being contagious. Dr. Brown, "a very old army medical officer," in his letter to the Marquis of Londonderry, on the subject, gives, as the result of his inquiries, the following conclusions. 1st. That the disease has certainly not been imported. 2d. That it is not contagious. 3d. That it has attacked, almost exclusively, persons of the lowest order, living in the worst situations, and whose constitutions were broken down by previous disease, old age, or intemperance. Dr. Brown considers commercial restrictions *to be totally superfluous, as the disease is not communicable;* and, by throwing the working classes out of employment, and consequently of bread, they will, he alleges, fearfully aggravate the evil.

The Central Board of Health, have drawn up and ordered to be issued, the following important paper to the various Boards of Health:

Council Office, Nov. 14, 1831.

Sir—The Central Board of Health having maturely weighed all the information which has been transmitted to them, relative to the progress of the Asiatic spasmodic cholera in various parts of Europe, but more particularly guided by the conclusions on this head to which Doctors Russel and Barry have arrived, after a few months careful and laborious observation of the character of that disease, in those parts of Russia which they have visited, beg leave to suggest for your consideration the following sanatory hints.

I. As to Precautionary Measures.

In order to insure the adoption and realize the benefit of any system of sanatory arrangements, in a large community, the first essential point is, to divide that community into subordinate sections, and to form distinct Boards of Health, each to consist, if possible, of a resident clergyman, and a number of substantial householders, and of one medical man, at least.

These Boards should be charged with the following duties in their respective districts, viz:—

1. To appoint inspectors. Each inspector to visit daily, and to inquire carefully after the health, means of subsistence, cleanliness, and comfort of the inmates, (of say one hundred houses, more or less, according to local circumstances.)

2. To receive and examine the reports of those inspectors; which should be made up to a given hour on each day.

3. To endeavour to remedy, by every means which individual and public charitable exertion can supply, such deficiency as may be found to exist in their respective districts, in the following primary elements of public health, viz: *the food of the poor, clothing, bedding, ventilation, space, cleanliness, outlets for domestic filth, habits of temperance, prevention of panic.*

4. To report to their principal Boards, respectively, on the above heads, as well as on the actual state of the health of their districts.

The subordinate divisions of each district ought to be numbered or lettered, and each district named; the names of the members of each Board; of the medical men attached to each; and of the visiting inspectors employed, should be placarded in conspicuous places.

Principal Boards of cities, towns, or parishes, to report directly to the Central Board in London.

1. On the actual state of health of the whole population.

2. On the precautionary measures already carried into effect.
3. On the measures contemplated.
4. On suspected sources, if any there be, from whence this particular disease might possibly spring.

With regard to precautions, as to intercourse with suspected or really infected persons or places, the Board are confident that good sense and good feeling will not only point out, but morally establish, as may be practicable, the necessity of avoiding such communication as may endanger the lives of thousands.

But they strongly deprecate all measures of coercion for this purpose, which, when tried upon the continent, invariably have been found productive of evil. The best inducements to a prompt acknowledgment of the disease having entered a family, as well as to an early voluntary separation of the sick from the healthy, will always be found in the readiness and efficiency with which public charitable institutions attend to the object in sec. 3.

It is with much satisfaction that the Board feel themselves authorised to declare, and it will no doubt be highly consolatory to the public, to learn, that, *under proper observances of cleanliness and ventilation, this disease seldom spreads in families, and rarely passes to those about the sick, under such favourable circumstances, unless they happen to be particularly predisposed.*

It will not, therefore, be necessary, where there is space, and where due attention is paid to cleanliness and purity of air, to separate members of families actually affected by the disease, nor to insulate individual houses, unless in cases of crowded, filthy, badly-ventilated habitations, and other contingencies which involve the health and safety of all.

It having been proved by ample experience, in more than one city in Europe, that the fitting up and furnishing of hospitals for the reception of the poorer classes supposed likely to be attacked by the disease, at a period too long before its actual breaking out, has been productive of great waste of means, by the spoiling of various articles, and the consequent want of wholesome accommodation, when most required, the Central Board would recommend that proper and sufficient house-room only be secured and prepared in the first instance, and that the charitable be called upon only to *pledge* themselves to furnish, at a given notice, such articles of bedding, furniture, &c., or the value of them, as they would at once have contributed.

By this means the deterioration of perishable articles will be avoided; and, should the district entirely escape, the contributions will be saved.

The situation which the Board would recommend for temporary cholera hospitals, would be those most detached, insulated, and thoroughly exposed to free and open air; the description of house such as would admit of the most perfect ventilation and cleanliness, and the largest space around the sick.

The Board would recommend, when a family is reported to be in an unhealthy state by the sub-inspector, and the disease confirmed to be cholera by a medical member of the District Board, that the head of such family, if unable to afford accommodation at home, be advised to send the sick person forthwith to the temporary hospital; and that the other members of the family be supplied with such additional means and comforts as their state may require, to enable them to resist the influence of the infected atmosphere in which they live.

II. Medical and Dietic Precautions.

These will be found of considerable importance, from their contributing to prevent or diminish the susceptibility to infection which individuals may possess at the moment the disease breaks out. No sudden nor extensive alterations should be made in the usual modes of living. All changes of food, to be useful, indeed not to be absolutely prejudicial, should tend to render it drier, more nutritive, and concentrated; moderately costive bowels, the almost invariable consequence of a dry invigorating diet, will be found more conducive to exemption from cholera, than an opposite habit.

Whenever aperients may become indispensable, those of a warm, aromatic kind, in moderate doses, or domestic means, should alone be resorted to.

What is generally understood by salts—viz. Glauber's salts and Epsom salts, as well as other cold purgatives, should not be taken *in any quantities*, nor, on any account, without the express prescription of a medical man.

The medical members of the Board beg to state, in the most decided manner, that no specific preventive against cholera is known to exist; and that the drugs hitherto offered with this pretension, in countries where the greatest ravages have been caused by this disease, not only did not possess the negative virtue of doing no harm, but were found to be absolutely injurious.

The true preventives are a healthful body and a cheerful, unruffled mind. Looseness of bowels should be immediately checked, and any thing like periodical chills or cold perspirations should be met by quinine in suitable quantities; but habitual drugging, at all times *improper*, is to be deprecated in the strongest terms when epidemic disease is apprehended.

The Board have been anxious to lay before the public, as early as possible, the above precautionary outlines, which they trust will tend, together with the suggestions emanating from the wisdom of your and other local Boards, if not to exempt the whole population of these realms from the scourge of spasmodic cholera, at least to enable them to meet it, in the event of its appearing amongst them, with physical and moral constitutions the least likely to suffer from its virulence.

The Central Board will avail themselves of the earliest opportunity to transmit to you any further sanatory suggestions which may occur to them on the subject of precautionary measures, as well as an outline of instructions now in preparation for communities supposed to be actually attacked.

I have the honour to be Sir, your most obedient servant,

E. STEWART, Chairman.

When Philip, king of Macedon, invited Dionysius the Younger to dine with him at Corinth, he felt an inclination to deride the father of his royal guest, because he had blended the characters of the prince and poet; and had employed his leisure hours in writing tragedies. "How could the king find leisure," said Philip, "to write these trifles?" "In those hours," answered Dionysius, "which you and I spend in drunkenness and debauchery."

A Compendious History of the Asiatic, or Spasmodic Cholera, including an account of its *causes*, and the best means of *prevention* and of *cure*, will soon be published at this office.

Origin, Symptoms, and cure of the Influenza, or Epidemic Catarrh, with some hints respecting common colds, and incipient Pulmonary Consumption, pp. 80. Published at the office of the Journal of Health, No. 121 Chesnut street, Philadelphia.

JOURNAL OF INSTRUCTION,

Conducted by "The Philadelphia Association of Teachers."

The first number of this work was issued from the Literary Rooms, No. 121 Chesnut street, Philadelphia, Office of the Journal of Health, on the second Wednesday in January, and will be regularly continued on the second and fourth Wednesdays of every month, on a medium sheet, in quarto form, at $1 25 per annum. All Agents for the Journal of Health are requested to act as such for the above work.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, February 8, 1832. No. 11.

Our readers must all, by this time, have heard of the magnificent bequest of Stephen Girard, "mariner and merchant," to the city of Philadelphia. It affords the most substantial proof of a sound and discriminating mind, intent on the accomplishment of schemes of practical benevolence, and enduring public good. Vanity might have devised other means of appropriating such vast wealth as he died possessed of; and might, perhaps, have been still more successful in extorting the praise and wonder of the multitude. Girard's aim was high and noble—it was to ameliorate the condition of the poor, by lightening their burdens, and improving their health; and educating the helpless orphan to usefulness for himself and society, in place of allowing him to become an outcast, perhaps a criminal!—We cannot do better here than give the very language of his "Will."—

"And whereas," says he, "I have been for a long time impressed with the importance of educating the poor, and placing them, by the early cultivation of their minds and the development of their moral principles, above the many temptations to which, through poverty and ignorance, they are exposed; and I am particularly desirous to provide for such a number of poor male white orphan children as can be trained in one institution, a better education, as well as a more comfortable maintenance, than they usually receive from the application of the public funds: And whereas, together with the object just adverted to, I have sincerely at heart the welfare of the City of Philadelphia, and, as a part of it, am desirous to improve the neighbourhood of

the river Delaware, so that the health of the citizens may be promoted and preserved, and that the eastern part of the city may be made to correspond better with the interior: Now I do give, devise, and bequeath."———

Then follow the details respecting the disposition of his property for the purposes aforesaid:—

Some hygeinic hints are furnished in various parts of the will. Thus, among the very full details respecting the construction of the college for orphan children, we cannot but approve of the direction to have all the outside foundation walls, forming the cellars, three feet six inches thick up to the first floor, or as high as may be necessary to fix the centres for the first floor; and the under foundation wall, running north and south, and the three inside foundation walls running east and west, three feet thick up to the first floor: the outside and under walls, from this to the top or roof of the building, shall be of two feet thickness. Not only is greater strength and durability obtained by thick walls, but also the percolation of underground moisture into the cellar, and of that of the atmosphere into the rooms above, are prevented.—A more uniform temperature is also insured by this means, the air of the apartments being less changed, in this respect, by either the cold of winter or heat of summer.

The testator has, also, been careful to direct the manner in which the building shall be warmed in winter. "A furnace or furnaces for the generation of heated air shall be placed in the cellar, and the heated air shall be introduced in adequate quantity, whenever wanted, by means of pipes and flues inserted and made for the purpose in the walls, and as those walls shall be constructed." Descriptions (with plates) of the apparatus for this purpose have been repeatedly given in this Journal,* and we have never ceased to urge its use on our fellow citizens. The strong testimony in its favour, thus borne by Mr. Girard, is entitled to the more weight, from the fact that he was well versed in the economy and details of building, and had introduced this plan in some of his new private houses.

With the same wise intent of guarding against currents of cold air from without, as well as for other purposes of safety and convenience, double doors in each instance are directed—"Those opening into the rooms to be what are termed glass doors, so as to increase the quantity of light for each room; and those opening outward, to be of substantial wood-work, well lined, and secured." —There is to be a double stair case on the north and south sides, carried up through the several stories. Ornament is not lost sight of, but is rendered more attractive by being subservient to durability, as when the testator directs the outside walls to be faced with slabs or blocks of marble or granite, fastened together with

* Vol. II. p. 80—133, and 140.

clamps securely sunk therein.—"The floors and landings, as well as the roof, shall be covered with marble slabs securely laid in mortar; the slabs on the roof to be twice as thick as those on the floors."

The size of the college is directed to be one hundred and ten feet east and west—and one hundred and sixty feet north and south. It shall be three stories in height, each story at least fifteen feet high in the clear from the floor to the cornice.—It shall be fire proof inside and out.—The floors and roofs to be formed of solid materials, on arches turned on proper centres, so that no wood may be used except for doors, windows, and shutters. Cellars shall be made under the whole building, solely for the purpose of the institution.—"There shall be in each story four rooms, each room not less than fifty feet square in the clear—the four rooms on each floor to occupy the whole space east and west on such floor or story, and the middle of the building north and south; so that in the north of the building, and in the south thereof, there may remain a space of equal dimensions, for an entry or hall in each, for stairs and landings."

The instructions left by Mr. Girard, for the organization of the college, and the terms of admission into it, will form the subject of another article, in which we shall have occasion to introduce notices of similar foundations in Europe.

The next article of his Will, connected with public hygiene, is that which relates to the improvement of the city along the Delaware. Mr. Girard's residence in Water street, and his commercial avocations, requiring his presence so often on the wharves, must have made him experimentally convinced of the propriety and necessity of reform in that part of the city. But his experience went still farther; he was a witness of the dire pestilences of 1793, and 1798, and could not fail to be struck with the fact observed by all medical writers, that those parts of a city which are low and damp, and the streets narrow, and ill ventilated, and in which houses are crowded in small courts and alleys, have ever been the seats of the most destructive diseases, whether we call them plague, yellow fever, or cholera morbus. He who was so active as one of the superintendants of the Hospital at Bush Hill in the years already mentioned, and so instrumental in the removal of the poor sick from Water street, and the adjoining courts and alleys, to this airy situation out of town, could not fail to be struck with the deleterious influence of a close and impure atmosphere, and with the continual risk which persons living in it, incur of being victims to pestilential diseases. It may, perhaps, excite surprise, that Mr. Girard should himself have continued, until his death, to reside in Water street. But it should be remembered, that his own spacious mansion, his temperance, amounting to abstemiousness, his early rising, and daily visits to his farm in the country,

could not but greatly contribute to counteract the injurious effects of his location, and place him in circumstances very different from most of the inhabitants of this quarter.

Conscious of the necessity of reform here, he bequeaths to the City of Philadelphia, after legacies to his relations and others, and appropriations for the college, the sum of five hundred thousand dollars, part of the residue of his real estate, the income from which is to be spent in laying out, regulating, curbing, lighting, and paving a passage or street fronting the river Delaware; in pulling down, and removing all wooden buildings, as well as those made of wood and other combustible materials within the limits of the city of Philadelphia; regulating, widening, paving, and curbing Water street, and distributing the Schuylkill water therein.

The new street, to be called *Delaware Avenue*, is to extend along the river the whole line of the city, and is to be not less than twenty one feet wide.—It will be a pleasant and salutary change for the mud and filth which forms the upper stratum of the made ground of the wharves, as we now have them. The owners of the wharves projecting out between the docks, and to the east of the *Avenue*, are to be compelled to keep them clean, and covered completely with gravel or other hard materials, and to be so levelled that water shall not remain thereon after a shower of rain. The corporation of the city is also to prohibit all buildings, fences, or erections of any kind to the eastward (river side) of said avenue; to completely clear, and keep clean all the docks within the limits of the city fronting on the Delaware; and to pull down all platforms carried out, from the east part of the city, over the river Delaware, on piles or pillars.

In all the preceding provisions, we recognize an observant mind, attentive to the best means of promoting health, and preventing disease, by having well paved streets and wharves; removing wooden or frame houses and projections, as much as possible, and obtaining free ventilation. From a paved street, it is easy to clear away vegetable and other matters, which would else be worked into the mould or clay of the ground, and create a stratum alternately saturated with rain, and giving out moisture and gases, under the influence of the sun's rays. Decayed wood is another constant source of deterioration of the air near it; and on occasions has given rise to diseases of great virulence. Both these morbid causes, or series of causes, are in almost constant operation, during nearly eight months of the year, along the banks of the Delaware, on the wharves, and in Water street. Nor can we hope for permanent security against the invasion of yellow or other malignant fevers, until the views of Mr. Girard are carried into full effect. They have an

infinitely more practical and direct bearing on public health, and go farther to the prevention of disease than all the quarantine regulations and lazarettoes of our Boards of Health.

CHOCOLATE.

The editor of one of our Eastern papers,* expatiates, in the most eulogistic strains, in favour of chocolate. "The labouring man," he remarks," "and particularly he who is exposed to the inclemency of the weather, will find it not only a comforter, but the firm ally and supporter of his strength. He will find it to be worth all the grog ever distilled—more powerful and bracing than the strong waters of Cogniac—more nourishing than the rich wines of Madeira and Champaigne. It gives strength and action to the stomach, when distilled spirits have no power to aid either; and then it brings no evils in its train—it engenders no ill feelings, beats no wives, starves no children, and makes beasts of no husbands or fathers. Unlike *cold* water, it does not chill the vitals, and send the blood in a torrent back to the fountian of life, often producing spasms, and sometimes death itself. Drink it then, ye that are wise, and be happy." All this is very well said, and what is far better, it is generally true. There can be no doubt as to the nutritive and wholesome qualities of the cocoa nut, and of its being far better adapted to suppert the strength of the labouring classes, and to enable the system, when exposed to the weather, to resist the effects of cold and fatigue, than either tea or coffee. To the traveller, a bowl of good chocolate, and a slice of bread, before setting forth on his journey of a cold winter morning, will really produce all the good effects which have been erroneously attributed to ardent spirits, or to wine. But while we acknowledge the general correctness of the praise bestowed upon chocolate by the writer just referred to, we must be permitted to dissent from him on one or two points. "Nothing," he says, "goes into his mouth, during the winter, colder than *boiling* chocolate." Now we are not in favour of any one, save M. Chabert, the fire king, taking into his mouth, or attempting to introduce into his stomach, this or any other fluid, when at the boiling point. Really, the mouths of our eastern friends must be formed of somewhat different materials from our own—or we pity their condition after they have attempted to partake of the fervid draught to which they have been invited. "Let the stomach be filled with a beer-quart of this beverage, (chocolate,) and nine-tenths of the ills of life can find no entrance there." We believe the stomach is

* The Pawtucket Chronicle.

the portal through which a goodly number of ills find their way into the system; but we are not quite so certain, that distending it with a beer-quart of fluid, however wholesome in the abstract, is the very best means of shutting out evil. It is, at least, rather an unwise experiment to swallow so large a quantity of chocolate, whether it be boiling or not, at a single meal. What the writer says of *cold* water chilling the vitals, is, on occasions of peculiar feebleness of frame, a truth, though obscurely expressed; but when he talks of its "sending the blood in a torrent back to the fountain of life," we confess he gets far beyond our comprehension, and we fear a little beyond his own depth. But to return to the subject with which we set out.

It is really a subject of regret, that the price of good chocolate could not be so far reduced as to place it within the reach of every poor family. It has been calculated that one ounce of it, in substance, affords equal nutriment with one pound of meat. This is probably, however, overrating its value as an article of food. Nevertheless, when properly prepared, particularly when a large portion of milk is added to it, it is equally pleasant to most palates, as coffee and tea, and affords what the latter do not, a solid support to the system. From the very circumstance of its nutritive properties, it should be taken, with bread, either at breakfast or at dinner, and but seldom in the evening. It is, also, a more appropriate food for those engaged in active pursuits, in the open air, than for the sedentary, or those confined within doors. It should especially be avoided by those of full habits, and those who are inclined to an excess of fat.

In thus recommending chocolate, we have in view, let it be recollected, the pure cocoa or chocolate nut, free from the spices with which, in some countries, it is so liberally seasoned. In its manufacture for use, the farinaceous and oily portions of which the nut consists, should be so intimately blended by trituration, that the whole of it diffuses itself equally, or is almost entirely dissolved in boiling water, or in milk, without exhibiting any large globules of oil floating separately on its surface. It is, on this complete union of its two component parts, that the easy digestion of chocolate depends. When this union has been but imperfectly effected, it is very apt to disagree with the stomach, and in certain individuals, to produce sick head-ache, disturbed sleep, and other disagreeable consequences. Low priced chocolate is often manufactured by grinding, with the genuine article, flour, and some species of fat; by this means its bulk is increased, but always at the expense of its flavour and wholesome properties.

The best way to prepare chocolate for persons of delicate habits, or valetudinarians, is to boil it in water, and allow it to grow cold: then to take off the fat which forms on the surface,

to reboil the chocolate, and to pour it on cream and sugar. Made in this manner, it is much lighter, and more generally agrees with weak stomachs, than when prepared in any other.

Some persons with very weak digestion, make use advantageously of the shells of the cocoa, boiled in milk, or even in water, if a still lighter beverage be wanted.

MEASLES—SCARLET FEVER.

Scarlet Fever, *Measles*, and various other eruptive complaints, have, for several months past, prevailed to a very great extent in different parts of the United States. The mortality produced in some situations, by the two first diseases, has been truly frightful. This has doubtless resulted from the violent and unmanageable character which they are so apt to assume, when they occur epidemically. We fear, nevertheless, that in a considerable number of cases, the violence of the disease, and the death of the patients, are to be attributed mainly to the vulgar prejudices which prevail, in regard to the nature of eruptive diseases generally, and the improper treatment which is in consequence adopted; previously to a physician being called in, and sometimes during the period of his attendance.

It was once an opinion, entertained even by medical men, that all diseases, accompanied with an eruption upon the skin, were produced by a morbific principle generated in the blood, and which the healing power, inherent in the system, attempted to remove from the more vital organs, by throwing it out upon the skin. Hence it was maintained, that the more copious the eruption upon the surface of the patient's body, the greater was his chance of recovery. On this doctrine was founded a plan of treatment, adapted, as it was supposed, to aid the efforts of nature in "driving out the disease." The greatest anxiety existed on the part of the medical attendant, to produce a copious eruption, and to prevent it from "striking in." The poor patient was accordingly placed in bed, in a hot apartment, and carefully covered with clothes, so as to prevent the least access of cool air to his skin: while, at the same time, hot stimulating drinks were freely administered internally.

Happily many years have elapsed since the instructed part of the medical profession became convinced of the incorrectness of the foregoing views, and of the highly pernicious effects produced by the plan of treatment to which it gives rise. But the errors of physicians are, in most instances, eagerly adopted by the public, and fondly cherished for ages after they have been renounced by the former.

We accordingly find, that whenever a child is attacked with measles, or scarlet fever, or exhibits the least symptom of being unwell during the prevalence of either disease in the neighbourhood, the parents, of their own accord, or prompted by the advice of some officious and *overwise* neighbour, set to work to force out, as it is styled, the disease. From that moment must the little patient bid farewell to the delightful sensation produced by the inhalation of cool fresh air, and its free admission to the surface of the body—no longer is he permitted to quench his feverish thirst by any bland cool liquid. However restless he becomes—however hot and parched his skin—however earnestly nature may crave cooling drinks and fresh air, the misguided parents persist in withholding them—heat is applied externally, and into the stomach of the unfortunate sufferer is forced sweet marjoram or saffron tea, as hot as it can well be swallowed.

The effect of all this, instead of a decrease of the disease, is an augmentation of the uneasy sensations of the patient; increased fever; and too often serious disease of the throat, or of some internal organ, which the most judicious and best directed efforts of the physician are unable subsequently to subdue. It is true, that the disease of the skin is increased, but with this is also increased the sufferings and danger of the patient. An attack, which, had it been left entirely to itself, might have terminated favourably in a few days, is often, by this system of mismanagement, caused to eventuate in death. Let an individual in ordinary health, of an irritable constitution, be confined to bed in a warm apartment, and drenched with hot stimulating drinks, and he will very soon have fever, and not unfrequently an extensive eruption on the skin. In all eruptive complaints, attended with fever, the proper course is to reduce the heat of the skin, and the general excitement of the system, and by those means to diminish—not to increase the external eruption.

Would parents only learn the importance of relinquishing entirely the management of their children's complaints, and of sending at once for competent medical advice, however trifling to them the case may appear in its primary symptoms, they would save themselves many a day and night of painful anxiety, and be more certain of escaping the mournful task of following to an early grave, a fondly cherished—perhaps an only child. The saving in expense, by such a course, we need not urge. No one who has any pretensions to correct feelings, would, for the sake of saving an extra dollar or two, jeopard the life of even a stranger.

A physician, when he is called in to a case of measles, or of scarlet fever, will direct the patient to be kept *cool;* in winter, by permitting only a moderate fire in his apartment, and a light covering for his body—and in summer, by a cool dress, and free

ventilation. Perchance, if the case be one of scarlet fever, and of any severity, nothing being present to forbid its use, he may direct the entire surface of the patient to be freely sponged with cold water, or the latter to be dashed over the naked body, until the heat of the skin is subdued—the process to be repeated as often as the morbid heat returns. This may startle some parents, and cause many an ignorant granny to hold up her hands in utter horror; but the proper course is to entrust the patient to the care of a physician, in whose skill and judgment every confidence can be placed, and then to follow implicitly his directions, however much they may be opposed to preconceived notions and prejudices, or excite the ill-omened croakings of the *knowing* nurse. The physician will direct the drinks for the patient to be given cool, and that they shall consist of some mild mucilaginous fluid, as toast, barley, or gum water, made slightly sour with lemon or lime juice—or, at least, to consist of something equally bland and simple. He will direct the patient to be kept in a large airy apartment—every care being taken to preserve it strictly clean. He will insist upon his being debarred the use of all heating, solid, or indigestible food. Thin gruel, or panada, will be, perhaps, the only nutriment that can, with propriety, be allowed.

So far as it regards the keeping of the patient's skin cool—the free admission of fresh air, the restricting him to a very spare and simple diet, and the allowance of cool bland drinks, the sooner they are commenced with after an attack of either of the diseases alluded to, the better. No danger need be apprehended of this course causing the eruption to strike in, and endangering any of the vital organs; on the contrary, by adhering to it, even were no other means resorted to, the safe recovery of the patient is rendered more certain than by an opposite course, although the treatment, in other respects, should be the more judicious.

BABY.

The subjoined pleasant and instructive satire on practices, some of which we have more than once reprobated in strong terms, is from the pen of Mr. Jerdan, and was written for one of the most popular of the English annuals. We have added a few notes, still further illustrative of the absurdities and cruelties in the treatment of infants, so happily reprobated in the text.

Every reader, of common sagacity, will readily perceive at once how the following auto-biography was communicated, and therefore I will not, as is too much the fashion among authors, by profession, trouble them with unnecessary explanation. Suffice it to say, that the authenticity of the narrative is unquestionable; for I had it out of the individual's own mouth, and I have not altered one syllable.

Sceptical persons might doubt the existence of those precocious talents which enabled Baby, at the early age of twenty-four hours, to deliver the painful relation of all its experience and sufferings in this world; but when it is recollected that the human mind often exhibits wonderful phenomena amid the bright glances which precede death, it will be acknowledged that the present memoir is the result of one of these half mundane, half celestial illuminations of the spirit.

"My first perception of life," said Baby, "or at least the first particular which I consider it fitting to record—for I am not like a German biographer, who would go farther back, to the very beginning of things—was my being handed from the rough grasp of a man, into the arms of a filthy old woman. I cannot describe to you the disgust I felt at the hag. Her countenance was most forbidding; her eyes inflamed; her nose reddened towards the point, and her breath abominably infected with the odours of gin. I did not know, on inhaling the scent of this offensive compound, what it was; but the wretch was determined that I should not long remain in ignorance of its effects, either in a gaseous or a liquid form.

"It was evident from my entrance into the world, that this monster entertained a design against my life; and, though I resisted with all the energy of a free-born and independent infant, the contest was too unequal, and I finally sunk beneath her machinations, and those of my other cruel persecutors.

"The moment I perceived that her intentions were fatal, I set up a squall which you might have heard, in the stillness of the night, quite across the square; but it was utterly disregarded, or rather made the subject of mockery. 'There's a stout boy,' cried the demon; 'I'll warrant ye, that will expand the bones of his head for him.' My poor head indeed was the immediate object of her attack; for taking another gulp of gin from a glass, and spouting some of the fiery fluid into her hand, she instantly deluged my skull with it, and rubbed with all her might.* Oh, the dreadful torture which I endured! The burning substance penetrated through the fontinelle, or mole of the head, to my very brain, and scorched it into agony. I writhed and screamed in vain; and, the paroxysm of madness over, uttered a low and piteous moaning, which might have melted the heart of a fiend. But mercy was never meant for me. Conscious of my inherent rights and dignity, as a British man child, and resolved to support both at the expense of my fortune and existence, oppression and tyranny were soon leagued against me, and I was crushed by the foul combination.

"Not yet a quarter of an hour old, the barbarous usage I had undergone was but a prelude to the whole iniquitous course which was systematically pursued against me, by all but one being, who, from her affection to me, was exposed to almost equally relentless persecution. My poor mamma, she alone showed any sympathy for Baby; but she was too powerless to afford me efficient succour, in aid of my own brave exertions.

"Finding that the application of the gin, though it turned my brain, did not

* This vulgar and cruel practice of washing not only the head, but often the whole body, in ardent spirits—gin, whiskey, or brandy—has its origin in the false notions of the reputed virtues of these liquors, taken internally. It is high time for every intelligent physician to pointedly set his face against their introduction into a house, and, above all, into the nursery, under any pretext whatever. Failing to do so, he becomes, in a great measure, responsible for the drunkenness of nurses, the fevers and inflammations of mothers by hot caudles, and the death of infants by the addition of ardent spirits to their food; for even to this pitch of folly and barbarity have some nurses and mothers reached, before now.

absolutely destroy me, the old woman, whom they called Nurse, (Curse would have been a juster title,) endeavoured to kill me in another way. There was a large brown pan in the middle of the apartment, filled with tepid water, and into this the murderess plunged me headlong.* She thought she could drown me; but again my activity and presence of mind prevailed, and I saved myself from a watery grave, by the vigour with which I kicked, and the force with which I squalled. Astonished by my courageous conduct, and baffled in her wild scheme, the tigress was compelled to desist; but if she could not accomplish the murder, she could gratify her hellish spite, which she did, by taking an opportunity to scrape me from head to foot, more in the manner of a dead pig than a living boy. I was much hurt by this process; my excoriated skin smarted all over, and I could do nothing but cry and howl as if my lungs were bursting. To this natural appeal no attention whatever was paid by my unnatural enemies.

"The next attempt upon me was of a different, but hardly less infamous character. You are aware how they used to treat their mummies in Egypt, in the olden time. From this, I presume, the hint was taken, for the new torment practised upon me. Laying me in her lap, the malignant old woman took a long roll of linen, and began to swathe me up as if indeed I were a defunct Egyptian, never intended to stir or breathe more on this earth.† Round and round did she whirl me; and I never experienced such a sensation of giddiness before, as that which now overcame me. I could frame an idea what it was to be tumbled about; but to be tossed and gyred in this violent manner, was too much to be borne. I was, however, reduced to passive endurance, by being so tightly bound, and so worn out by the conflict I had inflexibly maintained, that I seemed almost reckless of what was done to me. I fancied at last they were going to execute me without the formality of judge or jury; for they put an ugly cap upon my head, and brought a band under my chin, and across my throat, to strangle me, drawing the ligature even to suffocation. I cannot tell how I escaped, but I did escape this, the third attempt upon my life, within the first thirty minutes of its duration.

"A very few moments' repose being now allowed me, I began to reflect upon my hapless condition. Here was I, without a friend in the world who could help me, with a bold and uncompromising spirit, it is true, but comparatively weak and defenceless; here was I, naked and exposed to the most diabolical malice of foes, who had obviously entered into a conspiracy to make away with me by some means or other. What could I do? to whom could I appeal? there was no one to take my part. But I will not anticipate events; they crowded fast enough into

* The 'Baby' was fortunate in not having been plunged into cold water, with a view of hardening it; as if the living body were to be tempered like steel.

† The only excuse for this rolling up of infants is, to prevent a rupture at the navel; but the means thus adopted, are among the most efficient that could be devised, for causing this accident elsewhere. Let a person put the hand on the abdomen, or region of which the navel is the centre, and feel the rising swell of this part, during every inspiration, or drawing in of the breath, and it must be very obvious, that to compress this whole region by a bandage, passed round and round the body, cannot but interfere with the freedom of respiration, by preventing the complete enlargement of the chest, and the descent of the lungs. The viscera, or organs, contained in the great cavity itself, being thus pent in by the bandage in front, and all round, and pressed upon above by the midriff in its descent at each inspiration, will greatly suffer, and be forced into new situations, or kept in forced contact—irritating and inflaming each other.

my miserable span, as you shall now hear, without being troubled with any reflections upon them.

"Having walked into the world about midnight, I looked at the time-piece on the mantle-shelf, and found that I had been more than two hours in this busy life; but circumstances had crowded so rapidly into that space, and I had been made so utterly miserable by the stirring scenes in which I acted so important a part, that I felt no appetite whatever. On the contrary, I seemed to entertain a loathing for food; my indignation may therefore be conceived, when I observed the odious female, to whom I have so often already had occasion to allude, preparing some diet, and evidently for me. I knew it by the scowl upon her countenance, as she took up a bottle and poured some of its contents into a silver teaspoon; my presentiment was almost instantly realized. Seizing me quickly unawares, I had barely a moment to extend my jaws in the act of bawling for assistance, when the gag, or spoon, was thrust into my mouth, and the whole of its nauseous freight forced down my throat.* Scream I could not; a sort of gurgling noise was all that could be heard: I sank back, and thus tasted the first of bitterness which my youthful stomach was doomed to receive.

"I have intimated that, like other geniuses, I was born with literary tastes, and a taste for the fine arts. I am sure, had my life been prolonged, I should have turned a celebrated author, as well as painter: as it has been decreed, I can only claim the fame of being 'The Little Unknown.' But there was something curious in the coincidence, that my earliest acquaintance with literature and painting should be so vastly disagreeable as to consist of my reading Ol. Ricini on the bottle whence I had been poisoned, and swallowing that oil which might have been the medium of a nobler production than it was now destined to produce. Mingled with the tints of a Titian, it might have created an immortal Venus. But I will not pursue the contrast.

"A sense of sickness took possession of me. I asked myself—is this the food of human beings? Is it for the enjoyment of such delicacies as this, that gormandism and sensuality fill so prodigious an extent in the existence of men? If it be so, how I pity them! Ah! were their palates as pure as mine, how would they abhor such indulgences! I am ashamed to own it, but as this is a biography of truth, (and I believe the only one ever written,) I must confess, a la Rousseau, that I internally exclaimed with an oath, 'It is d—d bad.' The recording angel, I trust, considering my provocation, would deal mercifully with this offence.

Fatigue had now completely exhausted me, and sleep began to steal over my faculties. A yawn was the sign of this soporific condition; and will it be credited, that the wretched nurse would not even permit this natural symptom. She who had violently forced my mouth open for her own cruel purpose, would not suffer me to open it myself; but the moment she saw me seeking this relief, she clapped her finger and thumb under my lower jaw, which she pushed upwards, till I thought it would have cracked again.

"Inured to suffering, sleep at length closed my weary eye-lids, and I slumbered free from sorrows for a while. But it was the mere insensibility of tired nature—not a sweet and refreshing repose. Ignorant people, and especially poets, talk of

* This practice of pouring down a dose of castor oil, or of sweet oil, to answer some theoretical purpose is becoming happily less frequent. One little less absurd, however, still prevails. It is, of dosing the infant with molasses, or sugar and water.

balmy sleep being like an infant's. Bah! they must have forgotten their infancy—the swaddling which precludes free respiration—the other incumbrances of babyhood. For my share, I had a horrid dream. I fancied I was put away from the world again; and I could, but I will not, a tale unfold.

"I woke but to fresh troubles; to new and unheard-of inflictions, of which it is almost impossible to state whether the utter nastiness, or the barbarity, were the most shameful. Like a criminal from the rack, condemned to undergo farther ordeals, no sooner did the nurse notice that I was taking a survey of the chamber, than she immediately darted upon her prey. From a small skillet, or pan, she poured forth a thickish, unpleasant substance, whether called pap or gruel, I never could learn, for I heard both names applied indiscriminately: and first—oh, beast! —drawing the mess through her own skinny and grinny lips, she poked the revolting spoonful almost into my throat.* Reject it I could not; down it went. In flavour, certainly not abominable as my breakfast of castor oil, this, my second meal, was rendered no less obnoxious by the process of its administration, or service. Surely, in this instance, whoever sent the meal, the devil inspired the cook.

"The consequence might easily have been foreseen; but it was very hard that, from no excess of my own, I was attacked with cholera—the fashionable name for what my gradmamma, in ultra-refinement, termed a stomach complaint. But whether called by a learned Greek, a fashionable, or a vulgar name, I was compelled to endure what I had been compelled to incur. I was no volunteer glutton or drunkard: superior to man, I had not made the ill of which I had so much cause to complain.

"Had it not been for the continuance of my malady, I might have fancied that the world was not a perpetual hell. For several hours I was not meddled with. A great piece of flannel was wrapped round my head and shoulders, and I was smothered in the bed,† which had something of warmth more consonant to my constitutional habits, than the colds of a winter night to which I had been so much exposed.

"A weary period having elapsed, I was removed from my nest. The fire yet burned cheerfully; but the candle had grown to an immense wick, with a top like the dome of St. Paul's, and a light, dim and flickering. Nurse sat by the fireside, in a great arm-chair, smelling more than ever, of the beverage which was as the breath of her nostrils; that breath, by the by, was ever and anon turned to a deep, but by no means musical diapason. Lying on her knee during one of these naps, I gazed around with that degree of curiosity which new situations commonly excite; for I naturally wished to become acquainted with the manners, habits, and customs of my fellow creatures. The view impressed me with no idea of comfort.

* Great fears would seem to be entertained, that the child would starve before it obtains its natural and fitting nourishment from its mother's breast; and hence the cramming the new born first with melasses and water, and then pap and the like. The effect is often thus described in the narrative.

If there be unusual delay in the mother supplying milk to the infant, a substitute may be given in moderation, to consist, not of pap or panada, but of milk and water—two parts of the former to one of the latter—with some loaf sugar.

† One would suppose that infants can breathe and live without fresh air, were a judgment to be formed from the pains taken to wrap its head and face up, and then to bury it under the bed clothes. Many a child has been either directly suffocated by such treatment, or rendered so languid as to gradually pine away unto death.

Phials and labels about their necks; pipkins, napkins, basins, clothes, chairs, and tables, at all sorts of angles, &c. &c. &c., seemed so untidy, that I could well understand why it was called a sick room; it was enough to make any body sick.

"As morning approached, two or three maids began to peep in. They giggled, walked on tiptoe, and appeared as highly elated as if each had borne a son of her own. They drank with the nurse, and carried off some tea and sugar to make breakfast. One or two of them looked at me and observed that I was a nasty looking animal. After which they laughed and took a glass, whispering, as far as I could gather, a great deal of impertinent nonsense.

"Carrying me in her arms, the nurse, about this time, went towards the window, and quietly withdrawing the curtain, lest her mamma should observe how malignantly she was treating me, exposed me to the full glare of morning. The flash of pain was excessive; instinct shut up my eyes, or I should have been blinded for life. But this was only one of the slightest of the miseries heaped upon me.

"Soon after, my first acquaintance on earth returned, under pretence of inquiring about my health. The villain, in my own hearing, approved of all that had been done to me, and spoke of repeating the same kind of usage if I presumed to dispute their authority. While he was talking, another man came in, who I soon gathered, was another ruthless enemy of mine. Indeed I saw now that he was the origin of all my distress; the instigator of my persecution; and, like a coward, bribed others to commit the crime he had not courage to perpetrate with his own hands. I tried hard to divine what new plot was hatching against me, but could not make it out. I only observed this fellow slip the bribe into the open fingers of the other, who, though called doctor, which is derived from learning, looked smilingly like a murderer, evidently promised acquiescence, and walked away, grinning most diabolically, as he conveyed the gold to his pocket.

"The noise, I presume, waked my poor mamma, for she uttered a low noise, and moved slightly on her pillow. Alas! it was but to provoke outrage; the second savage strode up to the bed, and putting his face close to her's, gave her a smack, which, though partially concealed, was perfectly audible to my ear. How I longed for a giant's strength, to punish the miscreant! But I was condemned to a similar fate. The suffering saint was so accustomed to ill-treatment, that she only smiled faintly, and waved her pale hand; when the assassin quitted his prey, and advanced towards me, my rage and hatred were inconceivable. I think I could have repelled him, had he assailed me alone, but one of his infamous associates was still left to help him. She held me towards him, and he served me exactly as he had served my martyr of a mother.

"Till then, I knew not the pang she bore with such patient resignation: of all the pains I had yet encountered, it was the most poignant and severe. His chin was armed all over with sharp spears, and short but cutting knives; and these, by a dexterous motion, such as only long practice could have taught the tormentor, he contrived to stab into every pore of his victim's face. I screeched aloud, and I saw the tear come into mamma's eyes; but the others, as before, only made a scoff of my agony. "He is a charming boy, and your very picture! he is indeed his papa's own!" said the nurse, (as confounded a lie as ever was uttered! and, besides, my countenance was so distorted, that I was like nothing human;) and then papa chuckled out a horse laugh, and taking his purse, without the least affectation of secrecy, bribed and rewarded his other vile companion.

"A few words passed between them; and again inflicting the torture upon his unhappy and unhesitating wife, the flinty-hearted tyrant withdrew.

"I had hitherto preserved considerable resolution under the indignities and dangers of my situation; but the last occurrence depressed me exceedingly. I clearly perceived that the only living creature attached to me by sympathy, was exposed to the worst of injuries on that account; I saw that she was broken-spirited and uncomplaining, though decidedly unable to undergo, as I had done, the continued attacks of our adversaries. As a proof of this, I may state, that she took a cup of the oil, which the nurse presented to her, without even kicking or squalling. My soul died within me, and the shock of my feelings, I have no doubt, hastened my own dissolution.

"Well, the day wore on; several women called in for a few minutes, and all seemed of a mind that I ought to be made way with. One advised a second spoonful of oil as the means; another, something named Daffy's Elixir; a third, a drop or two of gin;* on which the nurse swallowed a bumper aside, to show, as it were, how it might be taken without flinching. Among the rest, was a very old female, whom they styled grand-mamma, because she was dressed in a stately guise. This hideous person disguised herself by putting two round glasses over her eyes, and then came close to me. Oh, the insufferable beldam! a powder, of the most pungent and acrid nature, which she had concealed about her nose till near enough to shake it over my innocent organs, was so cunningly applied that I was not even aware of the insidious act, till in the midst of fondling, the whole catastrophe overwhelmed me. I endeavoured to ease myself by sneezing; upon which the company burst into a titter:—my curse be upon them for their inhumanity.

"By degrees we were left again to night and solitude; but my nerves had been so lacerated, and my constitution so impaired, that it soon became too evident the machinations of the conspirators were likely to terminate to their contentment. Lest it should be too slow, one of them was again sent for my first worthy friend, and he ordered more poisons to be forced down my throat. In nothing was I left to nature; my very limbs were encumbered as if they had dreaded that being a *sans culottes*, a *sans culottes* I would die; the inconveniency of this I will not describe. I was born to ill-luck in every thing—to good luck in nothing.

"Flayed, drowned, insulted, incapacitated, smothered, abused, tortured, poisoned, is it to be wondered at that I resigned myself quietly to the prospect of a release? My poor mamma was unhappy, and cried; and the last of the conspirators appeared upon the stage. He was a ferocious looking fellow, with a red face and twinkling eyes; and I suppose he was brought at the late hour from a masquerade, as he was dressed in a domino. I fancy he had taken off his mask; but I will not positively assert aught of which I am not sure.

"Be that as it may, he took a little book from his pocket and mumbled a few sentences; (it would have gratified the literary taste with which I was born, had he uttered them distinctly;) he then dipped his fingers into some water and contemptuously threw it in my face. Previous to this, however, there was a dispute among the actors in my tragedy. Mamma said softly, 'Let it be William Frederick Augustus Gustavus;' I so love a beautiful name, and one of which we may be proud hereafter; but my ruthless papa replied, 'No, it must be Peter Nathaniel, or

* This is no exaggerated picture of the impertinent intrusion, and gross ignorance which venture advice on such occasions.

uncle Peter may be offended, and old Nat. Curmudgeon, who has promised to stand god-father, forget him in his will. 'Peter Nathaniel,' accordingly exclaimed the black ruffian, when he dashed the water over my piteous countenance.

"It was of less consequence, for the curtain was now about to fall. I felt too weak to resist this contumely, and submitted to be placed on the bed of my sorrowing parent. She gently laid me on her bosom, and the sight was so affecting that the bearded barbarian, papa, seemed to be moved by it. He dropped some consolatory words, and said, if any thing could restore me, that loved bosom would. I was sorry to be obliged to agree with the murderer in any one opinion, though I felt I was departing; but in truth this soft and yielding breast was delightful whereon to rest my fevered cheek. I raised my little hand towards it—I threw the latest glance of my closing eye upon it—I drew one draught of nature from its fountain—I uttered one short sigh—I had for one moment tasted an earthly heaven, and for an everlasting heaven I winged my flight." With this beautiful sentence, Baby concluded his auto-biography.

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THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, February 22, 1832. No. 12.

Thales the Milesian, one of the seven wise men of Greece, and addicted to astronomy, while gazing very intently at the stars, fell into a pit, for which he was laughed at by an old woman, who happened to be near, and who told him that he had better first learn how to govern his own movements, before he pretended to study those of the heavenly bodies. The rebuke, though not without point, might have been spared, considering how really useful and profitable were the astronomical speculations and discoveries of Thales. We mention the anecdote, however, for the purpose of hinting to some of our city councils, and sundry editors of newspapers, that their zeal might have a much more profitable direction in the interests of the public health, if, at this time, in place of straining their mental vision across the Atlantic, to try and make out the occult causes of cholera—and failing to do so, to assume for it a character not proved, they were to look at home and inquire into the numerous 'pits' of disease into which we are all daily liable to stumble.

The Board of Aldermen of New York, acting as a Board of Health, have, we understand, petitioned Congress to take measures for preventing the Cholera reaching our shores; and recommended that a medical commission be sent to England (Europe) to inquire into the nature of the disease. We have strong doubts of the competency of the worthy Aldermen to act as members of a Board of Health; nor do we think that their *action* as such, comes within their attributes. Their suggestions indicate a very sufficient ignorance of the subject, as well as con-

vey a more than implied insult to the physicians not only of their own city, but of the United States. Why did the self-constituted Board of Health not petition Congress, or, if it was not in session at the time, request the President, to prohibit the arrival on our shores of the Influenza, and to establish a non-intercourse with that vile easterly wind, which Lord Bacon tells us is neither good for man nor beast. The ability of Congress to keep off the Cholera, even were it, agreeably to the suggestions of some of our newspapers, to establish a cordon along the whole seaboard, is about as questionable, or rather is just as improbable, as to keep off the Influenza, or our yellow or bilious fevers. All attempts of this nature have utterly failed in Europe, even when enforced by the whole array of civil and military police—in fact, by entire armies. Despite of all the cordons and triple cordons, St. Petersburgh and Vienna and Berlin have been visited by the Cholera. It is enough for us to suffer from apprehension beforehand, and perhaps the ravages of the disease ultimately; but, in the name of humanity, let us be exempt from the barbarous restrictions, the perpetual vexations, and the interruptions to business and pleasure, of *cordons sanitaires*, and quarantines, in epidemic diseases. We only wish that some of these lovers of restrictions could be made to appreciate their nature, by being quarantined some thirty days in a lazaretto of one of the Mediterranean ports, and to feel the irksomeness, the suspicious watchfulness with which they look on all around them, and the consequent gloom pervading all, even when they are in perfect health, and have had no sickness on board their vessel.

This formal warning off of an epidemic disease, and threats to use, if need be, the arm of the law, and the law of arms, constantly reminds us of the familiar story of Canute, king of Denmark and England, who, in an assumed tone of imperious command, forbade the advancing tide from approaching his royal presence, or daring to wet his royal throne, which was located for the moment on the sea shore.

Magendie, a French physician of note, on his visit to Sunderland, where the Cholera was, by the last accounts, still raging, praises the English government for not surrounding the town with a cordon of troops, which as "*a physical preventive would have been ineffectual, and would have produced a moral panic far more fatal than the disease now is.*" But having so recently expressed our views in this matter,* we pass to a notice of the other recommendation of the New-York Board of Aldermen, viz. to send medical men abroad in order to obtain information respecting the nature of the Cholera. One would almost suppose, from the purport of this suggestion, echoed by some of our newspaper editors, that

* See articles 'Sanitary Cordon,' in No. 5, and, 'The Cholera not Contagious,' in No. 10 of the present volume of this Journal.

the United States were in much the same relation to the rest of the world, as the 'Celestial Empire,' China; and that, unless by special mission sent by other nations to us, or by us to them, we could have no means of becoming acquainted with each others' situation. The art of printing, and the circulation of knowledge by books and journals, are for the moment forgotten; and it seems to be gravely imagined, that our physicians have all the time been in a state of stupid wonder at the progress and ravages of the Cholera, and are waiting for the information to be derived from the mission proposed by the New York Board of Aldermen.

Had these worthy gentlemen made inquiries of their professional townsmen, or taken measures to create a Board of Health, composed of physicians, they would have learned that numerous documents concerning the Cholera have been published during the last twelve years; in which the localities where it has been most destructive, the class of people on whom it has spent its greatest fury, the causes which have given it force, and in many instances rendered the pestilential atmosphere operative, have been fully and distinctly set forth, and many useful precautions and means of prevention indicated. We have in our possession at this time, more than a hundred different works,—books, hospital reports, essays, reviews, and letters on Cholera, from the first hospital reports in India, in 1818, down to an account in October, 1831, of the disease in Berlin; and still more recently, of its occurrence in England. They are written by English, French, and German physicians, in their respective languages; and have been consulted by us, as well for our own satisfaction, as to be enabled to place the subject before our medical brethren, and to prepare a compendious history of the disease, which we shall soon lay before the public.

What shall we do to guard against the Cholera? is, after all, the question which recurs. We have already anticipated the question, in the article entitled '*Precautions against the Cholera.*' We shall add more hints adapted to the situation and exposures of the inhabitants of the United States.

1. Let Congress be petitioned, if petitioned it must be, to lay a tax on distilled liquors, and thereby increase their price, and thus throw some impediment to their excessive use. Such a law would do more for the prevention of Cholera, and diminishing its mortality when present, than a military cordon established along the whole line of our seaboard, and the most rigid system of quarantine, to boot. "The proximate causes," of Cholera Morbus in Russia, according to Dr. Ucelli, who wrote in the midst of the ravages of the disease, "were intemperance and the abuse of spirituous liquors, (to which in this country, Russia, the lower classes are most fearfully addicted,) together with sup-

pressed transpiration."—We have, on a former occasion, stated, that out of one hundred persons destroyed by the Cholera in Warsaw, it was proved that ninety had been addicted to the free use of spirituous liquors. After the decline of the disease at Riga, the occurrence of the Whitsun holidays caused a temporary augmentation of new cases, from the indulgence in intoxicating drinks, and other irregularities incident to a popular festival. The immediate predisposing cause of the attack of the most virulent Cholera in Gateshead, adjoining Newcastle upon Tyne, has been attributed, as we learn from the late English papers, to the tippling carried on at Christmas Eve.

2. Let our city corporations increase the price of tavern licences, and take away those which merely afford a convenience for tippling and nightly excesses.

3. Let them avail, to the utmost of their vested authority, in order to widen and ventilate alleys, passages, and courts, in which a number of people are congregated together.

4. Let them also make diligent inquiry into the means of lodging of poor wretches, who are huddled, hundreds of them together, during the night, without adequate space; and who convert the air into a source of pestilence by the exhalations from their lungs and skin! These poor creatures should be distributed to different parts, and cleansed and clothed and fed; and their old receptacles closed up, after being thoroughly aired and fumigated.

5. Let there be places of deposit in different parts of a city, in which there should be flannel, to be used when called for, to wrap round the body of the sickly, and those threatened with, or actually labouring under the disease. Also, several simple apparatus for applying the vapour bath; and medicines, such as solid opium, or the tincture, &c. In the same place, there should be persons in attendance, hired by the corporation, to apply the bath, to bleed, and such other offices as require to be promptly performed under the orders of a physician.

6. Let diligent attention be paid to cleanliness of the streets and houses, and frequent personal ablutions and bathings be recommended.

At Frankfort, on the Maine, each street had its Cholera committee, consisting of two or three of the chief inhabitants. These gentlemen visited every house daily, to see that the rooms were whitewashed, decayed fruit, vegetables, filth of every kind removed; and that, at least one slipper bath of tin is kept ready to be filled with hot water, under every roof. Soup kitchens have been prepared in every district. Very large supplies of medicines, and of provisions of all sorts, have been laid up. The medical men have had their districts allotted to them. Bands of trustworthy persons have been sworn in to act as attendants

on the sick. (At Berlin, the servants of families often ran off, and left their afflicted superiors utterly destitute.)

NIGHT BLINDNESS.

On a former occasion, we gave a short account of a curious affection of the sense of vision, in which sight is greatly diminished, or altogether suspended during the day, or in a bright light, but is tolerably acute in the dusk or after night. We propose now to notice an opposite condition of the eyes, in which their functions are suspended excepting when they are exposed to an intense degree of light.

The cause of this disease is precisely the reverse of that of the preceding: it being occasioned by the exposure of the eyes habitually to too great instead of too small a light. The retina, or nervous expansion of the organ, being in this manner too strongly stimulated, loses, in part, its sensibility, and hence requires an increased amount of light for the proper performance of its functions. At noon-day it is consequently sensible to the impression of objects; but does not clearly discern them in the shade, or towards the close of day.

At sunset, objects appear to persons affected with this complaint, as if covered with an ash-coloured veil, which gradually changes into a dense cloud, intervening between the eyes and surrounding objects. When brought into a room faintly lighted by a candle, where all the by-standers can see tolerably well, they can discern not at all, or only in a very feeble manner, any object; they may, perhaps, only be able to distinguish light from darkness: at moonlight their sight is still worse. They recover their power of vision at day-break, and it continues tolerably perfect all the day until sunset.

Night blindness is said to be endemic in Poland, in the West Indies, Brazils, and the intertropical regions generally. It is likewise, we are informed, endemic in some parts of France; particularly in the neighbourhood of Roche Guyon, on the banks of the Seine. So generally does it there prevail, that in some villages it is said to affect one in every twenty of the inhabitants; and in another, one in ten, every year. It commences in the spring, continues for three months, and returns occasionally, though in a slighter degree, in the autumn. Some individuals have been attacked by the disease annually, for twenty years in succession. The soil in this part of France is a dazzling chalk, and the brilliancy of the light reflected from it, in the commencement of spring, is probably the chief cause of the general prevalence among the inhabitants of night blindness.

In few parts of the world is the disease so commonly met with, and so decidedly marked, as in Russia during the months of sum-

mer. The eye is at this season exposed almost constantly to the action of light, as the sun dips but little below the horizon, and there is scarcely any interval of darkness. The disease is mostly confined to the peasants, who protract their hard labour in the fields from a very early to a very late hour; and, at the same time, exhaust the energies of their system, by daily fatigue and improper habits of living. Dr. Guthrie, to whom we have been chiefly indebted for the foregoing facts in relation to night blindness, gives an instance of the disease occurring suddenly during the spring, in a detachment of Russian soldiers, who, being ordered to attack a Swedish post, at the moment of its occurrence, had nearly destroyed one another by mistake. These men had been harassed by long marches, and exposed night and day to the glare of an uninterrupted succession of snowy mountains; both of which causes, no doubt, concurred in affecting their powers of vision in the manner alluded to.

The common domestic fowl is well known to labour under this defect naturally; and hence, not being able to see its food in the dusk of the evening, invariably at this period retires to roost: on this account, the disease has been termed by some, "*hen-blindness.*"

From a knowledge of this disease and its cause, our readers will learn an important caution, in relation to the preservation of their sight. That is, to guard carefully the eyes against any long continued exposure to a glare of light. We have known this disease to affect to a certain extent many individuals whose nights were spent in rooms brilliantly illuminated, and the energies of whose systems were reduced, by the loss of sleep—the confined air of crowded apartments, and various improprieties both in eating and drinking.

HINTS TO NURSES.

Strict and implicit obedience to the directions of the medical attendant, is one of the first duties in a good nurse. The physician, who has spent years in the study of the diseased conditions of the human system, and the means best adapted to restore to the organs their healthy action, is the only person who is capable of deciding upon what remedies a given complaint may demand—the proper form and period for their administration, and the stages of the disease at which their use is to be suspended, or their quantity increased or diminished. Hence, the importance of his directions being punctually complied with by the nurse, the patient, and his friends. Nothing should in any instance be altered without his knowledge: either in consequence of some trifling change in the character of the symptoms, under which

the sick may labour; to satisfy the capricious whims of the latter; or from the most pressing solicitation of his relatives, or over-officious friends.

Should any material change be expected to happen previously to the next visit of the physician, he will, if a man of experience, ordinarily give the nurse notice of it, together with proper directions how she is to act should it occur. But whether he does or not, he ought invariably to be consulted before his plan of treatment is altered. There are cases, in which, if the continued administration of a remedy at the given intervals be neglected, the time lost can never be regained, and consequently the sufferings of the sick may be prolonged, or his chance of recovery entirely destroyed.

It too often happens, from prejudices instilled into their minds in early life, or from improper indulgences subsequently, that individuals labouring under disease, indulge in a thousand ridiculous fears and apprehensions in regard to the effects of various remedies absolutely necessary for their cure; or they have acquired unmeaning likes and dislikes for this or that plan of treatment. "Oh! Doctor, I 'd rather die than be leeched"—"I can 't submit to be blistered, it would kill me"—"This don't agree with me, and that makes me sick," are assertions which the physician hears repeated day after day; and though he may have succeeded in quieting the fears and removing the prejudices of his patient, yet the want of firmness on the part of the nurse, or her ignorance, has often caused the remedy directed, to be delayed until its effects can have no beneficial influence over the disease, or perhaps be decidedly injurious. Life is in this manner not unfrequently sacrificed, or the future existence of the patient rendered miserable, in consequence of an incurable chronic affection being allowed to become seated in some important organ.

The very effects intended to be produced by a remedy, are occasionally the cause of its being laid aside by an ignorant nurse. If it excite nausea, it is declared that, "it made him, or her, so sick, that I could not think of giving it any longer:" nausea may have been the operation of the remedy anticipated and desired by the physician. So with various other medicines; this, according to the nurse's opinion, acts too much on the bowels—that not enough—one destroys the appetite, and another causes too much sleep—they are accordingly laid aside; and, on his next visit, the physician, to his mortification, finds the disease to be less alleviated than he had cause to anticipate, nay, perhaps, the symptoms are decidedly worse. Blame is not attached to the parties actually in fault; while he who had exerted uncommon skill for the relief of his patient, finds, perhaps, that the confidence in him of the latter, or of his friends, or perhaps of both, is so much weakened by the criminal imprudence of the nurse, that

he is obliged to abandon the case; or, if he continues in attendance, finds more difficulty in removing the prejudice against him from their minds, than in restoring the patient to health and usefulness.

It is a vulgar and pernicious, though very common error, that the strength of an individual labouring under disease, is to be supported by rich broths, jellies, or by solid meat itself. The outcry is, that the doctor, by his directions of spare diet, or entire abstinence, will starve the patient, or, at least, reduce his strength too low to allow of his speedy or perfect recovery. Hence, the relatives, we cannot call them friends, combine with the nurse to counteract the intentions of the medical attendant; a nourishing and comfortable dish is soon invented, with which the unhappy patient is crammed in opposition to appetite. What is the consequence? Even allowing the food presented to him to be something which he relishes, it does not nourish in the least —does not in any degree augment the strength, nor diminish the sense of languor under which he labours: but, on the contrary, increases or excites fever, oppresses the stomach, and depresses still more the diminished energies of his system. It adds, perhaps, new symptoms to the complaint of a more serious and unmanageable character. Let the nurse recollect, that in many complaints, the recovery of the patient depends upon the strictness with which the directions of the physician in regard to diet are complied with; and that in all, attention to the administration of proper food, both as it respects its quality and quantity, is *equally important*, as an attention to the administration of the other remedies prescribed.

When a nurse is obliged to act from her own judgment, which can very seldom happen, she is justified in doing what she considers best for the interests of the patient; but whenever a physician is in attendance, or the advice of one can be obtained, she must rest satisfied with following strictly his directions. Even after a disease is conquered, it often happens, notwithstanding the state of prostration, that a very restricted diet for a few days is an important means for preventing a relapse. Let no misjudged kindness lead the nurse or friends to the rash attempt of restoring the patient to perfect health by a stronger diet than that pointed out by the medical attendant. By so doing, they run the risk of injuring the convalescent, perhaps destroying him, and of affecting materially the reputation of the physician, upon whom should rest, always, the entire responsibility of the case.

"If the state of the atmosphere over the world, at any one time, is equally vitiated, by some unknown cause, its effects will first appear in places where that state of air is most powerfully aided by *local* vitiation, as in cities or marshy grounds."

THE CHOLERA AT ST. PETERSBURGH.

After the initial article in this number was printed, we received from our active and philanthropic Mayor, B. W. Richards, Esq., a manuscript document in French,* sent to him by the Secretary of State. It was written by Doctor Perron, and was transmitted to the department of State, by Auguste Davezac, Esq., the Chargé of the United States to the government of the Netherlands.

In expressing our obligations for the benevolent spirit which prompted the successive transmissions of the paper of Dr. Perron, until it reached us, we may take the liberty to observe, that the author differs but little in his details from those which have been for some time in our possession, obtained from other sources. On the debated question of contagion, the testimony of Dr. Perron is valuable, as being that of a physician who had opportunities on the spot, of arriving at a positive conclusion. Our readers should be apprized, that he was in St. Petersburgh during the prevalence of the epidemic cholera in that city, last summer; and that, while there, he had charge of 250 patients, in hospital and private practice, afflicted with the disease.

Before the cholera had reached St. Petersburgh, Dr. Perron believed it to be contagious; but, subsequently, *personal observation and experience produced in his mind a thorough conviction that the disease is not contagious.*

Causes.—He considers a predisposing cause to be, a general epidemic constitution of the atmosphere; the precise nature of which is not known, but the influence of which was felt, with different degrees of intensity, over all Russia in Europe. Before the appearance of distinctly marked cholera, diseases of an analogous nature, but of much less violence, were observed, and were evidences of the general alteration in the state of the air. Examples of this kind were frequent at St. Petersburgh, in the autumn of 1830 and the spring of 1831. It is, according to Dr. Perron, this general constitution of the air, aided by certain local circumstances, which brings about the *special epidemic constitution* or *disposition* to cholera. The force of this special disposition, or predisposition, thus modified by geographical position, is more or less strongly evinced on the inhabitants, according to individual constitution; and hence the different degrees of liability of persons to be attacked with the disease.

Among the predisposing *individual* or *personal* causes to cholera, he enumerates, the turn of life, derangements in the functions of the liver, great irritability of the digestive organs in those addicted to the use of strong drinks, asthma, exhaustion of nervous power by excessive sensual indulgences.

The occasional or incidental extrinsic causes are, confined and damp dwellings, sudden reduction of temperature, mental irritations, such as fright, fear, anger; indigestion; the use of food which causes flatulence, such as crude vegetables and fruits, acid or effervescent drinks, drunkenness, deficient aliment, or aliment of a bad quality.

* *Notions sur le Cholera des Indes ou Asiatique.*

Preservatives.—An enumeration of the causes, enables us to foresee the precautions necessary to be adopted as preservative means against the cholera.

Sudden chilling of the body, and especially of the region of the stomach and its vicinity, is to be avoided, and clothes rather warmer than usual are to be worn. A flannel or silk girdle, or band, is recommended to be worn round the body and next the skin. We shall supply an omission of Dr. Perron, by particular caution to avoid cold or wet feet.

The cold and damp air of the evening and night is to be shunned. Pure country air is to be preferred in summer; and in autumn and winter, the rooms of the dwelling, especially the bed room, should be well aired and ventilated; and farther purified by hanging up napkins or towels dipped in vinegar, so as to give off their moisture by evaporation; also, by putting equal parts of chloride of lime and sand in plates. Many persons should not sleep in the same room. Servants are to be forced to be rigidly attentive to cleanliness throughout the house.

A full reliance on the Deity, and entire submission to his will; fortitude, and calmness, ought to take the place of fear, anxiety, or angry passions. The first not only protect us against the disease, but, also, enable us, if attacked, to bear up under it.

Dr. Perron specifies, with some minuteness, the different articles of food which may be advantageously used, as well as those which are to be shunned, in order to ward off an attack of cholera. But as national usages must control greatly, in the selection of food, we shall content ourselves with giving the following counsel from a work now before us; it is, in fact, a summary of what Dr. Perron recommends.

"That regimen which the individual has found best suited to his constitution, should be adhered to; those who have been used to an active life, of course, diminishing the quantum of their food, in proportion as they are debarred from exercise. It being universally admitted, that whatever disorders the stomach and bowels, predisposes to cholera, all unripe fruits, watery vegetables, such as melons, cucumbers, &c., and all sharp liquors, such as cider, &c. must be avoided. The use of the weak acid beer of the Prussians, (the weiss-bier,) has been found extremely injurious; and the sale both of that sort of beer and of cider, has been entirely prohibited at Frankfort. Wine should be used, but in moderation. The system should neither be lowered by unwonted abstemiousness, nor excited by any violent stimulus."

Dr. Perron thinks that the use of all fermented liquors should be prohibited, except *bitter* beer, the froth from which should, however, be removed. After all, he tells us, that it is only persons accustomed to this liquor who can drink it with impunity, and even they must abstain from it, if they have looseness of the bowels, (diarrhœa.)

The main object being to preserve a regular and healthy digestion, it is obvious, that persons unaccustomed to even wine, will be better off by continuing their abstinence from it, than by beginning to drink it. The experiment of using it will, in such persons, be generally attended by acidity

or other disturbance of the stomach, heat and flushings of the cheeks, and some head-ache.

Dr. Perron's toleration of the use of ardent spirits in small quantities, by those accustomed to it, is obviously more fitted for the meridian of St. Petersburgh and Russian habits, than it would be for the inhabitants of the United States, who, eight months in the year are so liable to have their systems excited into violent fever by diffusible stimuli. For them the dietetic practices of the inhabitants of Spain, Italy, and the south of France, would be safer guides.

Decoctions of pearl barley, and rice; also, gruel and sago, are freely allowed by Dr. Perron.

Dried pease and beans, and cabbage, are prohibited articles to those who are at all troubled with flatulencies, or have weak digestion. We are to avoid also the use of all salads, either with or without vinegar, cucumbers, radishes, onions, garlic, and all kinds of mushrooms. The like prohibition extends to all kinds of parsley, heavy fat puddings, fritters, and in general all comfits and preserves; even rye bread is not allowed. Ice-cream ought to be carefully excluded from use.

Milk, warm from the cow, or boiled, is spoken of as a good article of food, except for the few persons with whom, from innate peculiarity of constitution (idiosyncrasy,) it will not agree. Cold milk, and above all, turned milk (bonny clabber,) is bad.

Shell fish, and cheese, are forbidden by Dr. Perron.

A review of the preservative means against cholera, will show that they are, in every particular, the same which we should advise in order to avoid indigestion and disturbance of the bowels; and which we should press on the attention of such of our fellow-citizens, as were apprehensive of, or exposed to, an attack of our common cholera morbus.

Method of Cure.—Our readers cannot, of course, expect from us in this place an account of the medical treatment of the cholera. We shall soon lay it before the public in a suitable vehicle. We may, however, be allowed, considering the intense feeling on the subject, to repeat some useful hints from Dr. Perron's paper, respecting certain preliminary measures, in the execution of which, the physician will require the aid of nurses and the members of the family.

He very judiciously advises, that people, before or during the prevalence of the epidemic, should converse on the subject with their family physician, or one in whose judgment they place reliance, touching the precautionary and curative means to be employed—the modification in these particulars depending on age, sex, and individual peculiarities.

Early application for medical advice, always important for the relief of the sick, is peculiarly called for in a disease like the cholera, which often runs its course in a few hours. It seldom lasts more than two days: when it does, there is greater hope of cure. Some die in four, seven, ten or twelve hours, from the first attack of the disease.

But a physician is not to be applied to in the evident and alarming cases

of cholera alone. His advice should be speedily obtained and implicitly followed, in the first or forming stage, when the patient is not even alarmed, but simply complains of some little heat and sickness of stomach, or looseness of the bowels, with a feeling of lassitude. In such cases Dr. Perron lays great stress on the benefit to be obtained by rest and confinement to bed. Many, he says, who were at first only affected with diarrhœa, but who refused to keep their bed, and continued walking about, brought on themselves violent and fatal cholera, by such obstinacy.

In this forming stage of the disease, the food ought to be very simple; a little chicken water with rice or barley boiled in it; or sago, or salep, well boiled, and a little red port wine added to it. The drink should be rice water, or toast and water, with a little wine.

We can, for ourselves, recommend with great confidence this dietetic course in cases of disturbed bowels. Restriction to rice water or plain gruel is, we know from large experience, one of the very best means of arresting its farther progress, and of curing this disease in its early stage. Any person so affected is competent to treat himself in this way, and may do so with complete success; attention, of course, being paid to preserving the skin, and especially the feet, of a suitable warmth.

Treatment of the First Stage.—In the first period or stage of cholera, marked by loss of appetite, flatulencies, nausea, and diarrhœa, accompanied by lassitude, and at times giddiness, slight vomiting, chills alternating with heat, &c., Dr. Perron directs the patient to immediately go to bed, and to take a cup of strong coffee, with or without sugar, and soon afterwards four to six drops of the oil of mint on a lump of sugar. The essence is here meant we suppose: the oil taken in this way, without diffusion in a suitable vehicle, would be too pungent. Bags of oats, or ashes, made very hot, are to be applied over the region of the stomach and bowels, and frequently renewed, until a free perspiration breaks out and causes the fit of disease to disappear with a promptness equal to that of its accession. So far the treatment may be considered as coming within the province of a good nurse, or attentive friend: but if to the symptoms above enumerated, be added acute headache and pains in the pit of the stomach, which do not yield to a large mustard plaster applied over this organ, the physician must be on the spot to perform or direct blood-letting to an extent depending on the intensity of the disease, and the age and vigour of the patient.

Here we would take occasion to remark, that, amid the diversities of opinion respecting the employment of other remedies, there is a very general, we will not say universal, concurrence of sentiment in favour of blood-letting in the cholera. We say this much in order to prevent the opposition to this practice, which popular prejudice and the hasty observations of some physicians may perchance interpose to its employment. Even the feeblest individuals need not fear it, says Dr. Perron, if the symptoms just stated be well marked: they will often feel stronger after the operation of bleeding.

So important is a recumbent posture in bed deemed by Dr. Perron, that he strictly forbids patients being allowed to rise at all, even for purposes which

are commonly supposed to justify and require it. It is easy for a nurse or attendant to prevent this necessity, by giving proper assistance in introducing under the patient suitable vessels, which are cheap and easily procured.

Farther medical details of the treatment of this first period of the disease, we shall not give in this place, because we do not believe they could be understood or used by the patient, or directed by an attendant in the absence of a physician. We may, however, mention that the only purgative or laxative medicine used by Dr. Perron, during the prevalence of the epidemic, was castor oil. The inference which we wish our readers to draw from this practice is, for them to avoid using, of their own accord, or suggestion, any harsh or strong medicine, whether called anti-bilious or anti-choleric pills or powders, or vermifuges, to act on the bowels. Great and irreparable mischief may be done by a neglect of this advice. Less benefit, indeed, has followed the internal use generally of medicines in cholera, than in most other diseases.

Treatment of the Second Stage.—In this stage, the worst features of the disease are unequivocally displayed, viz. copious evacuations, as in our own cholera morbus, but without any bile; the breathing is peculiarly laborious, and becomes more and more oppressed, accompanied with a sense of suffocation and constriction about the heart; alternate fits of pain and heat are felt in the digestive canal; urgent and inextinguishable thirst, and incessant desire for cold drinks to allay the burning heat at the pit of the stomach; extreme restlessness and agitation; the tongue is flabby, bluish, and even blue, finally cold, as is the breath. The extremities become cold and bluish, and, as it were, sodden. The patient at first complains of pain and twitchings, to which succeed violent cramps, chiefly in the calf of the leg, toes, fingers, and finally in the thighs and lower part of the chest. The pulse sinks and becomes almost imperceptible: the eyes are bloodshot, then dull and sunken, with a deep circle round them. The countenance of the patient is blue; the features are contracted, and indicate great prostration of vital powers, and the agonies of approaching death. The blood drawn at this time is black, and so thick that it flows with great difficulty: it is even cold to the touch.

The third stage leaves little to be added to the symptoms of the second; it is closed by death.

The urgent necessity for professional aid, is strongly marked in the second stage. But still, unless the prescriptions of the physician be promptly carried into effect by good nurses and other attendants, his presence will not be productive of the benefits anticipated.

The first and most important indication is, to restore the circulation and the generation of animal heat. For the most part, says Dr. Perron, a large sinapism (mustard plaster) was applied all over the abdomen, from the pit of the stomach down to the haunches. The body was then actively rubbed by four attendants, each one taking a limb, and making use of dry flannel, on which mustard flour had been sprinkled. Moist frictions with spirituous liquors were, Dr. Perron informs us, much less efficacious; since by their readier evaporation, they left the body of the patient cold, the moment when

frictions were suspended. Dr. Perron directed to the parts which suffered most from cramps, embrocations and frictions with the oils of turpentine, henbane, and cloves, and spirit of sal ammoniac, in definite proportions. Promptly succeeding this treatment, was the application of sinapisms alternately to the calves of the legs, thighs, soles of the feet, arms, and all along the spine, or even to all these at the same time, where the case was violent.

Baths, whether warm or vapour, are regarded by Dr. Perron as of very questionable benefit; the extreme weakness of the patients rendering it so difficult to undress them, and after their coming out from the bath, to dry them, and consequently to prevent their being chilled. This objection applies rather to the difficulty of using the remedy, than to the remedy itself: nor is it an insuperable one. Both the warm and vapour baths may be used without raising the patient from a recumbent posture; and if the temperature of the bath be sufficiently high, there is no danger of the skin being immediately sensible to the air of the atmosphere, or of becoming chilled. We are the more solicitous to obviate objections to the employment of these remedies, on account of the strong testimony borne in their favour, in different countries, by numerous physicians, whose opportunities of seeing and treating the disease were most ample.

We have before us, at this present moment of writing, in the November number of the New Monthly Magazine, a paper, translated from the Italian, entitled, "*Cholera Morbus Disarmed.*" The original was by an Italian physician, Dr. Ucelli, then resident at Sevastopol, the capital of the Crimea; and was addressed to his father Professor Philip Ucelli, of Florence.

Dr. Ucelli begins by reprobating the conduct of the physicians, at whose suggestion the government was guided on the occasion; and he especially instances, as reprehensible, the enforcing of quarantine regulations. But so it is all the world over: these regulations are a salve for the consciences of sanitary commissions and health offices, the members of which are, some of them, too indolent to investigate the subject, and others too timid to oppose themselves to popular, and in this case, vulgar clamour. But our present motive for introducing Dr. Ucelli to our readers, is, to give his views and experience, couched in very strong language, in favour of the vapour bath for the cure of cholera. We shall give his words, as rendered by the English translator.

"Now, as the proximate causes [of cholera] were intemperance, and the abuse of spirituous drinks, (to which in this country the lower classes are most fearfully addicted,) together with suppressed transpiration, the indication which I had principally and constantly in view, was to promote a determination to the skin, by means of the most abundant perspiration; this I usually accomplished, by applying very hot fomentations, bathing, frictions, &c.; and in the majority of cases, I had the satisfaction to see this succeed, without requiring the aid of any other remedy, save some acidulated beverage. But that which, above all, was attended with the happiest results, was the use of the vapour or steam bath, by means of the apparatus invented by Professor Assalini, which I had seen employed under your direction with the most complete success, in many very desperate maladies. Of these machines I caused a number sufficient for my purpose to be constructed, introducing some few modifications, for their more ready and economical application."

We have not space for a description of these baths, but our readers interested in obtaining a knowledge of their construction and use, will find abundant details in a work recently published at this office, "On Baths and Mineral Waters, by John Bell, M.D."* The apparatus of Assalini, as well as many other simple contrivances for the generation and application of vapour, for the purposes of bathing, are fully detailed by Dr. Bell, in a chapter of his work specially devoted to the subject. Mr. Boyd Reilly has obtained a patent for a very convenient apparatus for a vapour bath, in which the patient can preserve a recumbent posture. He is engaged at this time in making some additional improvements and modifications in his former patent.

The calomel and opium practice of the English physicians was not found to answer in the hands of Dr. Perron; and we may add, that the testimony of Dr. Ucelli is equally unfavourable to these remedies, as far as his experience extended, in the cholera of southern Russia. Dr. Perron professes to have derived benefit from the flowers of bismuth. But the remedy which would seem to enlist a larger share of his confidence, is a solution of common salt, in water. This is a favourite Russian prescription, and consists of two table-spoonfuls of salt dissolved in a tumblerful of hot water. It is given at a single dose while yet milk warm. It vomits, and causes often a discharge of some bile, which is always hailed as a favourable symptom. The patient afterwards takes a table-spoonful of a similar solution, but cold, every hour, and at last a tea-spoonful dose, until the more alarming symptoms have subsided. Sometimes the first large dose was sufficient to give entire relief, even in alarming cases. At other times, when no bile was visible in the matters vomited after the administration of the solution of salt, Dr. Perron bled his patient to the extent of eight ounces, if the blood flowed at all, or he directed the application of leeches or cups over the pit of the stomach, if pain or a burning sensation of this organ was complained of, and the vomiting recurred very often.

As tending to increase our confidence in the powers of the solution of table salt, it may not be amiss to give the following extracts from a letter by Dr. Barry, then at Warsaw, while the cholera prevailed in that city.

"Two physicians, (Germans,) Ysenbeck and Bruelow, stated publicly and firmly, in my presence, at the Medical Council, that during the preceding eleven days, they had treated at the Custom House Hospital, thirty cholera patients, *of whom they had not lost one.* They gave two table-spoonfuls of common table salt in six ounces of hot water at once; and one table-spoonful of a similar mixture, cold, every hour afterwards. They always begin by bleeding."

Dr. Perron, in common with all the writers on the subject, tells us, that if the first or intensely cholera period be passed without death, the patient is liable to fall into a lingering typhoid fever.

As to drinks, Dr. Perron tells us, that he always gratified the wishes of his patients, after they had vomited the solution of salt, by allowing them simple cold water, in small quantities, often repeated. Warm drinks he observed to be always rejected. He gave also pounded ice in small portions, recom-

* Philadelphia, 1831. 12mo. pp. 532.

mending the patient to swallow a part, and to let the remainder be dissolved in his mouth.

In the third stage of cholera, or that of paralysis, all remedies were found to be equally inefficacious. Phosphoric ether, and the most powerful stimulants, sulphate of quinia, frictions, sinapisms, baths, douches of hot water on the stomach, and along the spine, were all tried in vain.

Dr. Perron tells us, in conclusion, that there was not any remedy which seemed to have such marked and beneficial results, as to entitle it to a preference, to the exclusion of others.

If any excuse be required for our partial deviation, in the foregoing narrative, from the plan to which we have hitherto rigidly adhered in this Journal, our readers will, we trust, find it in the difficulty of separating entirely the dietetic from the medicinal treatment, and of omitting the outline of the course to be pursued by the physician, without at the same time withholding much that comes strictly within the province of the nurse and attendants. Time, moreover, is peculiarly valuable in the treatment of cholera, and the prompt application of many things directed by the physician, depends on some prior knowledge of them by the friends and attendants of the patient.

Although the essay of Dr. Perron is not distinguished by any originality of opinion, or novelty of practice, yet as a sensible and unpretending narrative of the causes, prevention, and treatment of cholera, as it appeared at St. Petersburgh, we could not in a proper spirit of courtesy to the official authorities from whom we obtained possession of it, omit to lay it before our readers—at least in all its essential details. No other vehicle could be chosen for giving it so wide a circulation throughout the United States, as it will obtain through the pages of this Journal.

Literary Piracy.—We have not room, in this number, to more than notice the literary piracy of a London physician, Dr. Granville, and a London publisher, in republishing the *Catechism of Health*, with a few unimportant additions—so few and trivial, indeed, as in no way to admit of a republication of the pirated work on this side of the Atlantic, without a direct infringement on the copyright of the *American* publisher.

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THE

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CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

"Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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The celebration of the centennial birth-day of Washington, in all parts of the United States, is an event well calculated to awaken a variety of emotions, and lead us to meditate with renewed pride and pleasure on the merits of the man, as connected with the merits of the cause, to the success of which he so materially contributed; not more by his consummate military skill, than by the higher qualities of a statesman and patriot. A hundred years have elapsed since the birth of Washington—and during nearly half of that period the people of these United States have been in the uninterrupted enjoyment of that form of government over which he was called, the first, to preside.

To commemorate the birth of such a man, by every suitable evidence of temperate joy and general congratulation, is at once a tribute to departed worth, and a testimony in their own favour by those who join in the celebration, since it argues on their part a deep feeling of the blessings they enjoy, and a sympathy for the qualities which ennobled the object of their regard. In this way anniversary celebrations have both a reflex and prospective operation—they carry us, in imagination, back to scenes of past greatness, and picture to our hopes, nay, almost promise assurance of future good.

These celebrations are useful not only in their moral and intellectual bearing, but also to the public health,—by allowing the entire population to cast off their cares, and desist from their daily toil—leaving their workshops, offices, and stores, to enjoy

the air and sun. The blood courses through their bodies with more rapid movement—their senses are all pleasantly excited; in fine, the mind, soaring to the sublimities of the day, gives its possessor a new feeling of dignity, and fresh determination to merit and improve the legacy transmitted by his ancestors.

We speak now of anniversaries such as they have been, and ought to be commemorated, by men alive to the importance of the events which they celebrate—neither stupified by slavery nor ignorance. We are aware that many good citizens deprecate anniversary celebrations—alleging that they furnish occasion for scenes of drunkenness and riot, and dispose many to begin a life of idleness. Their fears have been, we confess, too often justified by the facts; but let us hope that a brighter day is opening; that purer and more intellectual feelings will be universally entertained by the citizens of this republic, of the proper means and manner of celebrating two of the most important events of which we have any record in history, viz: the declaration of American Independence, and the birth of Washington. That slaves, allowed for a day to recreate themselves, should steep their senses in the contents of the intoxicating bowl, and give loose to the angry feelings of their nature, so long repressed, need not excite surprise; but that freemen, with every reason to be proud of their liberty, and to glory in the recorded annals of their country, should ignobly lower their minds and deprave their tastes to the level of rude barbarians, is a solecism which one would hardly expect in a civilized people. It could, indeed, only occur through the circulation and general use of a deleterious drink, debasing and stupifying, a true poison, as we now too surely know ardent spirits to be.

That celebrations may be conducted in a manner becoming freemen and intellectual beings, is clearly proved by those for the adoption of the Federal Constitution of 1787, and the hundredth birth-day of Washington, in 1832; at least as conducted in this city on these two occasions. During the period intervening between these two epochs, great and fearful has been the spread of intemperance—dark the stain on our national character, by licentiousness, cruelty, and other displays of moral turpitude and intellectual degradation—the direct effects of the excessive consumption of distilled liquors. On the first of these two celebrations, the vice was not so general in its practice nor atrocious in its effects, as subsequently. On the last, the eyes of the people are beginning to be opened to the imminent danger in which they are placed by its continuance. Judges and jurors, lawyers, physicians and divines, the master workman and the day labourer, the farmer and the ploughman, soldiers and sailors, are, at least, by the agency of some of their number, raising their voices and setting the force of their example against the

use of the accursed drink. The attention of the virtuous citizen is roused to the discord at his own fire side—to the peril his property and often his life, are subjected; and to the ultimate prospect of loss of his country's liberties, by a continuance and spread of the vice of intemperance, and of all the other vices of which it is the prolific parent. He feels that it is time to encourage, by example and moral suasion, his fellow citizens to rally around the altar of their liberties, and drive away the hideous crew—the sprites of evil augury which are surrounding and beginning to deface it.

The duties of parents and teachers are plain in this matter. When they point out to their youthful charge acts of heroism, they should indicate the true sources of inspiration, the qualities of head and heart which prompted, and the habits of order which gave effect, to the deeds of those whose names we venerate. They should show, that whatever actions mankind have recognized as great, glorious, and good—whatever in religion and morals as pure and sublime, and in science, instructive and beneficial, are referrible to feelings, emotions, talents and labour, to which no additional momentum—no doubtful excitement has been given by strong drink. The youthful in all classes should be taught, that no action worthy of commendation and respect—no character whose conduct has been meritorious, can be commemorated fitly by unworthy deeds—by voluntary degradation of intellect, or perversion of moral sense, as happens when an anniversary is kept by crapulous feasting, drinking intoxicating liquors, and scenes of riotous mirth.

In celebrations truly national, every citizen is presumed to be a participant in the general joy; and may, perhaps we should say ought, to participate in the public display of it. In the recent celebration in this city on the 22d February, the general feeling was very happily testified, by an array and procession of all the various trades and benevolent associations, with appropriate banners and devices, supported by several companies of volunteer cavalry. The scenic effect was still further increased by displays of the different manufactories, of use and ornament, in actual operation, on cars and stages, preceding the several trades and crafts to which they respectively belonged. The display was emphatically democratic in the correct and best sense of the word; it was of the people as they ought to be exhibited in a populous, flourishing, and well ordered community; in which each man has, by his own industry and skill, the means of support for himself, and of contributing while he obtains this, to the comfort and well being of his fellow citizens.

We were forcibly reminded, while the companies composed of followers of the various trades and arts were passing, of the wealth and power of the free cities of Germany, Italy, and of

those of Holland and Flanders, which, though not independent, had nevertheless their peculiar privileges. Not only were these cities marts of business and of wealth, but, also, cradles of liberty, in which democracy flourished, when nearly all the rest of Europe was ground down by iron despotism. Nobles, tyrants on their estates were suppliant slaves at the court of their sovereign; the cultivators of the soil were serfs exposed to the rapacity and cruelty of their baronial chiefs. It was only the inhabitants of the cities, who had the semblance, and in general, the reality of self-government, and the power of electing their own magistrates. These are important historical truths which are sometimes lost sight of in declamations against the corruption of manners and servile habits of the inhabitants of large cities.

Much of the influence of the burghers of the German and Dutch cities, as well as of some of the English ones, was founded on the facility with which they could make their wishes known, and enforce reasonable demands, by means of their various guilds or companies of trades and arts. In the United States, where every citizen is guaranteed by the general and state constitutions, the full enjoyment of his rights, the political operation of trades and guilds is not so much called for. There are, however, occasions in which their associated energies and resources ought, we conceive, to be called into operation. Some of those which have a direct bearing on their health, bodily vigour and serenity of mind, we shall perhaps be tempted to notice and explain at an early period.

FREQUENT EXERCISE OF THE VOICE NOT INJURIOUS TO THE LUNGS.

M. Benoisten de Chateauneuf in his researches into the occupations which are productive of disease of the lungs, has found no evidence to support the generally received opinion, that the frequent and prolonged exercise of the voice, in public criers, singers and musicians, is peculiarly liable to produce consumption. During the space of ten years, he has found, upon the register of four of the principal Parisian hospitals, but thirteen male and six female singers recorded as having been admitted as patients into those institutions; and as no one of these individuals are stated to have died of consumption, it is fairly presumable, that no one was affected with it. There can be no doubt, he conceives, that prolonged exercise of the voice, singing and playing upon wind instruments, may injure the lungs in persons in whom these organs are feeble or predisposed to disease. But in such cases not only is the exercise of the voice in declamation and singing, injurious, but also violent exercise,

running, dancing, mental agitation, all of which produce an effect upon the lungs, when they are already enfeebled, or have a tendency to disease, in the highest degree prejudicial. But when the lungs are sound, and the chest well formed and capacious, the frequent exercise of the voice as well as of the body, so far from producing injury, is decidedly beneficial. We do not, remarks the author just referred to, find that preachers, advocates or comedians are particularly subject to consumption; and the crowd of actors, who for the last thirty years we have heard declaim and sing night after night, prove that when the lungs are sound, neither singing nor declamation endangers the safety of those organs.

What however does certainly injure the lungs, is that painful position of the body, from whatever cause assumed, in which they are constrained constantly to dilate in order to receive the air which is forced into them, while the bony structure by which they are surrounded, is caused, from the unnatural position of the body, to compress them in nearly every direction, and thus resist their development. In this manner, the respiration becomes impeded, an uneasiness is experienced in the breast, and if the same state of things frequently recur, it gives rise finally to the diseases which would have been produced, had a malconformation or narrowness of the chest existed from birth. Every species of occupation, and all articles or forms of clothing which cause the individual to assume the constrained posture here alluded to, produce injurious effects, which would not have resulted from the natural exercise of the lungs—they invite disease, which otherwise might not have occurred.

From these observations, we learn how dangerous is the use of belts, corsets, or other articles of clothing which tend to compress the chest, and by that means impede or diminish the motions of the lungs; and how necessary it is to prevent the youth of both sexes, especially when there already exists a narrowness of the chest, from occupying many hours of the day in painting, embroidery, and needlework; in short, in any pursuit which demands a constrained position of the body.

PROHIBITION OF WINE BY MAHOMET.

The causes which led to the prohibition of wine by Mahomet, have been variously stated. The Sieur de Ryer, in his life of this celebrated impostor, but in many points of view judicious legislator, says, that in the fourth year of the Hegira, while the army of Mahomet was engaged in expeditions against the neighbouring tribes, some of his principal followers betaking themselves to play and drink, in the heat of their cups began to

quarrel, and raised such disturbances among his people, that they had like to come to an open rupture, by which the overthrow of all his ambitious projects was endangered. To prevent the occurrence of similar mischief in future, he forbade the use of wine and all games of chance for ever. To give to this prohibition a greater degree of importance, and to increase its influence over his ignorant followers, he supported it by the authority of a fable. Two angels, called Arut and Marut, were, he said, sent down, in ancient times, from heaven, to administer and teach to men righteousness throughout the district of Babylon. A certain woman came unto them for justice, and invited them to sup with her, on which occasion she set wine before them, which Alla had forbidden them to drink. But the pleasantness of the liquor tempting them to transgress the divine command, they partook of it, and becoming drunk enticed the woman to sin. She resisted, however, conditioning that one of them should first carry her into heaven and the other bring her back. But when the woman got to heaven, she refused to return, and declared unto Alla the whole affair; who, as a reward for her virtuous resolutions, made her the morning star. To the wicked angels was given the choice either to be punished for their wickedness now, or to suffer for it hereafter. They chose the former, and were accordingly hung up by the feet, near an iron gate, in a certain pit not far from Babylon, where they are to continue until the day of judgment: and because of its leading these angels into sin, Alla directed his prophet to forbid the use of wine to all his servants for ever.*

Abulfeda, in his account of Mahomet's pretended night journey to heaven, observes, that the angel Gabriel brought him three cups, one full of wine, another of milk, and a third of honey; upon which he took the milk and drank it, as the most proper of the three, after which he heard a voice, saying, "Thou hast made a lucky choice, Mahomet; since, hadst thou drank of the wine, thy nature would have deviated from the right path, and consequently in thine enterprises would have proved unsuccessful."

In the Koran, Mahomet would appear, however, to refer the reason for the prohibition of wine, solely to the disturbances which its use, and the indulgence in games of hazard, had caused among his soldiers; for in the 5th chapter of that book, he says, "The devil desires to sow dissensions and hatred among you, by means of wine and gambling: be obedient to God and the prophet, his apostle, and take heed unto yourselves."

The learned Mr. Sale, the translator of the Koran, appears to agree with De Ryer, that it was the quarrels and dissentions in

* This fable, which is here given on the authority of De Ryer, may be found, with little variation, in the Abbe Mariti's Travels, vol. i. p. 336.

company, and the neglect, or at least indecencies in the performance of religious duties, occasioned by inebriety, which induced Mahomet to this salutary prohibition. It is probable, also, that the observing eye of the ambitious soldier had detected the powerful influence which wine exerts, when taken in excess, in lowering the physical powers of man, and especially in laying his system more open to the attacks of disease in a sickly climate; or at least in rendering it less capable of enduring the fatigue and privations incident to the life of a soldier. Expecting to extend his dominions by the sword, and by means of his armies to proselyte to his faith, the whole at least of the eastern world, whatever had a tendency to render his followers less efficient in the hour of action, or to reduce their numbers, was to him necessarily an object of deep concern.

The fact is, that previous to, and at the time of Mahomet's pretended mission, the Arabians were addicted to drink wine to great excess, wherever they could get it; in consequence of which, they committed innumerable crimes, while their bodies were rendered a more ready prey to various malignant diseases. Mahomet therefore, very prudently provided against the continuance of similar evils, by prohibiting his followers entirely from the use of wine and all intoxicating drinks. The mandate of the pretended prophet, in this respect, was not without a precedent. The priests, under the Mosaic law, were forbidden to drink wine or strong drink, when they entered upon any of the sacred duties of their office. The Nazarites and Rechabites, as well as many pious sects among the Jews and primitive christians, abstained altogether from wine; and we find injunctions of a prohibitory nature observed among the Egyptians, Carthagenians, and Greeks.

Although there is little doubt that Mahomet intended, by his prohibition, a strict abstinence from all intoxicating liquors, yet some have imagined, remarks Mr. Sale, that excess in the use of wine or inebriating beverages, is alone forbidden in the Koran, and that their moderate use is allowed. The more general opinion is, however, that to drink any kind of strong liquors, in any quantity, is absolutely unlawful; and although certain libertines may indulge themselves in the contrary practice, the more conscientious are so strict, especially if they have performed the pilgrimage to Mecca, that they hold it unlawful, not only to taste wine, but to make, buy or sell it, or even to maintain themselves with the money arising from that liquor. Herbolet, the well known French writer, in his Bibliotheque Orientale, says, that there were some mussulmen so strict, that they would not call wine by its true name, for fear of offending against the laws of their prophet; while some of the Arabian princes went so far as to forbid even an allusion to it.

We have an early and striking instance of the strenuous observance of the interdictory decree, in the treatment of the soldiers under Abu Obeidah, in the reign of the caliph Omar, who on hearing from that general, that the mussulmen had learned to drink wine during the invasion of Syria, ordered, that whoever was guilty of this practice should have fourscore stripes upon the soles of his feet. The punishment was accordingly inflicted, and many were so infatuated, although they had no accusers but their own consciences, as voluntarily to confess their crime, and undergo the same punishment.*

Time, which unhappily too often destroys the best resolutions and propensities of our nature, and makes obsolete the wisest laws and practices, has rendered the crime of ebriety less uncommon among the Mahometans of the present day than formerly: but since this intemperance cannot be induced by social hilarity, it is always, with them, a solitary vice, and consequently, though not less hurtful, is much more odious;—it wants even the poor excuse of example or the false pretext so often urged, that excess is often unwittingly committed in the desire of promoting the exercise of the social feelings.

ABSTINENCE AN AID TO STUDY.

Boswell, in his Life of Johnson, tell us, "that in 1737 this celebrated individual abstained entirely from fermented liquors—a practice to which he rigidly conformed, for many years together, at different periods of his life."

Mr. Croker, in his edition of this work, recently published, makes the following pertinent observations on this passage: "At this time his (Dr. Johnson's) abstinence from wine, may perhaps be attributed to poverty; but in his subsequent life he was restrained from that indulgence by, as it appears, moral, or rather medical considerations. He probably found by experience, that wine, though it dissipated for a moment, yet eventually aggravated the hereditary disease under which he suffered; and, perhaps, it may have been owing to a long course of abstinence, that his mental health seems to have been better than in the earlier portion of his life. He says, in his *Prayers and Meditations*, p. 13, 'By abstinence from wine and suppers, I obtained sudden and great relief; and had freedom of mind restored to me, which I have wanted for all this year, without being able to find any means of obtaining it.' Selden had the same notion: for, being consulted by a person of quality, whose imagination was strangely disturbed, he advised him, 'not to disorder himself with eating or drinking; to eat very little supper, and say his prayers

* Ockley's History of the Saracens, vol. i. pp. 171—324.

daily when he went to bed; and I (Selden) made but little question but he would be well in three or four days, (Table Talk, p. 17.) "These remarks," continues Mr. Croker, "are important, because *depression of spirits* is too often treated on a contrary system, from ignorance of, or inattention to, what may be its *real cause.*"

Numerous other instances of the same tenor could be readily adduced. "It often happened," says the biographer of the great Luther, "that for several days and nights he locked himself up in his study, and took no other nourishment than bread and water, that he might the more uninterruptedly pursue his labours."

We shall conclude, by quoting an article from the Appendix to the Anniversary Report of the Pennsylvania Temperance Society.*

"The temperance and abstemiousness of most of the ancient philosophers, is well known. Demosthenes, the great orator of Greece, used no other drink than water. In modern times, we ought not to be ignorant of the fact, 'that Sir Isaac Newton, when composing his celebrated treatise upon optics, confined himself to *water* and a *vegetable diet:* to this abstemious mode of living, probably, may be ascribed the great age, viz. eighty-five years, to which he attained. John Locke, too, died in the seventy-third year of his age; his common drink was water, which he justly considered as the cause of his life being prolonged to so great an age, notwithstanding the original feebleness of his constitution, and the distressing disease, the asthma, under which he laboured for many years. To this temperate mode of life, too, he was probably indebted for the increase of those intellectual powers which gave birth to his incomparable work on the human understanding, his treatises on government and education, as well as his other writings, which do so much honour to his memory.'—*Hosack's Address.*

"Boyle, the father of modern chemistry, and the liberal promoter of science in general, though possessed of a very delicate constitution, attained to the age of sixty-five years. His drink was water. It has been said of him, that 'the simplicity of his diet, to all appearance, preserved his life so long beyond men's expectations: and in this he was so regular, that in the course of above thirty years he neither ate nor drank to gratify the varieties of appetite, but merely to support nature.'

"Euler, the famous mathematician, who attained the advanced age of seventy-six years, was strictly temperate. He is represented as of a cheerful and always pleasant temper; fond of society, and had the art of enlivening it by an agreeable wit.

"Without being able to affirm that La Place, the most original and celebrated natural philosopher since the time of Newton,

* May, 1830.

drank nothing but water, we have the evidence of his eulogist, before the French Institute, that he was enabled to continue his habits of excessive application to study until within two years of his death, without any inconvenience, owing to his always using very light diet, even to abstemiousness. La Place died in the seventy-eighth year of his age."—p. 31, 32.

COLD FEET.

Habitually cold feet, is one of the most conclusive indications of a diseased condition of the digestive functions, and strongly calls for an attention to those means by which the stomach and bowels can alone be restored to a state of health—a well regulated diet—daily active exercise, and early rising. It is in vain to attempt the removal of this disagreeable sensation, by the local application of warmth, or of stimulants to the feet, so long as its chief causes are allowed to continue and daily increase.

The amount and activity of the circulation is always less in the extremities, than in the central parts of the body—hence, upon exposure to cold, under the ordinary circumstances of health, without due protection, the feet and hands are the parts which first suffer, and from a degree of cold which would be scarcely experienced by the rest of the body. When from any disease of the nervous system, the due distribution of the nervous energy is interrupted, or when, in consequence of a permanent irritation, seated in the stomach or other parts of the alimentary canal, there takes place a diminished transmission of blood to the lower limbs, the action of the arteries in the feet is still further diminished, together with their power of generating heat,—these parts feel, therefore, permanently cold, and suffer severely from the slightest depression in the temperature of the air. We have known the feet of hysterical females, and of individuals labouring under dyspepsy, to communicate a sensation of coldness to the hand when applied to them, in the midst of summer; and in the winter to remain icy cold, when well covered in bed or enveloped in several pairs of woollen stockings. The unpleasant, nay painful feelings induced in the persons whose feet are in this state, can scarcely be imagined by those who have not themselves experienced them.

The cure may very generally be effected, particularly in recent cases, by a proper regulation of the diet, as well in regard to the nature of the food taken, as to its quantity. Plain wholesome food, simply cooked, without much seasoning, stale bread, various preparations of milk, and water for drink, must be adopted and strictly adhered to; observing, of course, the proper rules of moderation in its use. We have known, in several

instances, the abandonment of tea and coffee, the discontinuance of meat suppers—and in many more, abstinence from distilled and fermented liquors, to remove effectually, and in a very short space of time, a coldness of the feet from which the patients had long suffered. But a due attention to diet will not produce all the effects desired, unless joined with active bodily exercise in the open air every fine day. It is the sedentary, chiefly, who suffer from cold feet. The seampstress, confined to her needle day and night; the student, who impairs his health in the pursuit of knowledge; the clerk, chained to his desk for the greater part of the day, as well as that numerous class of mechanics whose occupations are carried on in a sitting posture, have almost invariably cold feet, impaired powers of digestion, and various uneasy feelings, indicative of a defective or irregular distribution of nervous energy, and which can be alone remedied by abandoning their several occupations for a stated period every day, to be devoted to exercise in the open air. Early rising, from its genial influence upon the general health of the system, should not be overlooked by those troubled with cold feet.

The warm bath, both general and local, will likewise be found highly beneficial. It is a mistake, that frequently washing the feet in warm water has a tendency to render those parts more liable to the impression of cold. We know from personal experience, as well as from its effects upon others who have made trial of it, that bathing the feet once or twice a week in warm water, is a very powerful means, in conjunction with regular exercise, of preventing the effects of cold, and of preserving them of a pleasant warmth. More especially is this the case when the use of the foot bath is followed by brisk frictions of the feet and legs, with a coarse towel or flesh brush. Repeating these frictions every night and morning, without the bath, during half an hour each time, is likewise a very excellent practice. Of course the feet should be carefully defended from cold and damp, by a proper covering.

By the course here pointed out, provided it be continued with due diligence and regularity, unbroken by occasional fits of miscalled indulgence, or of neglect, a healthy distribution of the circulating fluids to, and an increased energy in the action of the blood vessels of the feet, will very generally be permanently restored; and as a consequence, a comfortable feeling of warmth at every period of the year. In addition to which, an improved condition of health throughout the body will be experienced; for it is only by inducing the latter, that any remedy either externally applied or administered internally, can have the effect of removing an habitual sensation of coldness of the feet.

HEREDITARY INSANITY.*

One of the most curious and important chapters in the history of the human mind is still to be written, that of hereditary insanity. The symptomatic facts by which the disease might be traced, are generally either disregarded from ignorance of their real cause and character, or, when observed, carefully suppressed by domestic or professional delicacy. This is natural and even laudable; yet there are several important reasons why the obscurity in which such facts are usually buried, may be regretted. Morally, we should wish to know, as far as may be permitted to us, the nature of our own intellect, its powers and its weaknesses;—medically, it might be possible, by early and systematic treatment, to avert or mitigate the disease, which, there is reason to suppose, is now often unknown or mistaken;—legally, it would be desirable to have any additional means of discriminating between guilt and misfortune, and of ascertaining, with more precision, the nice bounds which divide moral guilt, from what may be called physical errors; and in the highest and most important of all the springs of human thought or action, it would be consolatory and edifying to be able to distinguish with greater certainty, rational faith and judicious piety, from the enthusiastic confidence, or the gloomy despondency of disordered imaginations. The memory of every man who has lived, not inattentively, in society, will furnish him with instances to which these considerations might have been usefully applied. But in reading the life of Dr. Johnson, (who was conscious of the disease, and of its cause, and of whose blood there remains no one whose feelings can now be offended,) they should be kept constantly in view; not merely as a subject of general interest, but as elucidating and explaining many of the errors, peculiarities, and weaknesses of that extraordinary man.

DEATH BY EXTERNAL WOUNDS.

In continuation of the subject of *Medical Jurisprudence*, we give, on the present occasion, some cases tending to show the means by which homicide is distinguishable from suicide; and thus to shield the innocent against unjust accusation, and at the same time, to bring the guilty to punishment. We avail ourselves, on the occasion, of the pages of the London Law Magazine, for January, 1829

The most common perhaps of all the means employed to produce death, is the infliction of external wounds, and with this it may be as well to commence. It would be superfluous in this place to enter at large into the variety of directions for the examination of the dead body contained in the

* Croker's edition of Boswell's Johnson.

best books of practice. It will, of course, be perceived that where there is doubt as to the agency by which life became extinct, the minutest observation of all appearances, both external and internal, is required. It would be easy to show by many examples, what terrible evils have resulted from the neglect to notice the most trifling circumstance in which the corpse has differed from the natural state, and how often the ends of justice have been defeated by the examiner's desisting from his labours as soon as a single corporal injury, adequate to destroy life, has presented itself. Bodies in vain submitted to the inspection of a surgeon, have been taken from the grave after many days, and a more accurate survey has traced, by marks before unseen, the immediate cause of dissolution: a murdered man has been thrown from a precipice, or cast into a river, and hasty and unsure observers have pronounced the death accidental: on the other hand, wounds or bruises fatal in appearance in those who have suddenly fallen dead from internal disorder, have given rise to the condemnation of the innocent, when a further investigation would have shown that the destroying cause was apoplexy or intoxication. The annals of France present a melancholy catalogue of legal murders thus effected, but we trust that the superior illumination of modern science must prevent their recurrence in European countries. There are, however, some niceties of discrimination so minute in themselves, yet so important in their results, that a mention of them becomes necessary here. We quote the following useful remarks from Dr. Beck.

"Wounds received before death are marked by red, bloody, and separated edges. Those inflicted afterwards are livid, and their edges close to each other. Similar appearances characterise contusions or blows in which there has been no solution of continuity; and on dissection they are, if inflicted on the living, found to be sub-cutaneous wounds: vessels are seen torn, and fluids extravasated, and the whole exhibits the marks of tumour in its elasticity and circumscribed shape. Violence to the dead body can only produce livid flaccid spots unattended with engorgement or tumour. Gangrene also is marked by its being surrounded with a red edge; putrefaction is not, and the spots caused by the latter are of various colours."

Circumstances under which these distinctions might have much depending on them, will be presented to the mind of every reader. To take a familiar instance, valiant Jack Falstaff could never have successfully disputed with the Prince of Wales, the honour of slaying Percy on the strength of the 'new wound i' the thigh,' had Henry the Fourth's surgeon been acquainted with some of the differences above mentioned.

As the most puzzling of similar appearances between which it is necessary to discriminate, we may name ecchymosis and sugillation: in other words, that effusion of blood into the cellular tissue of the skin which is produced by external violence during life, and that which proceeds from the natural gravitation of the blood after death. The former will be familiar to those who have stood near vanquished prize fighters; the latter is commonly visible in men dying of any disorder. An accurate distinction between these is, it may be feared, unattainable: the safest has been suggested by Zacchias. In ecchymosis, or the discolouration resulting from contusion, the blood on incision will be found concrete; but in the spontaneous spot or sugillation, fluid. This test cannot always be depended on, yet in the following case its employment might have saved the life of an innocent man.

The widow Montbailly of St. Omer, aged sixty, and of a gross habit, was addicted to daily inebriation. On the morning of the 27th of July, 1779, she was found dead in her chamber, lying on a trunk which had sharp edges. A physician and surgeon, upon examination of the body the day after, reported that they found ecchymosis and contusions upon the neck and upper part of the breast, the arms and thorax, particularly over the third, fourth, and fifth ribs. The head was swelled, the nose filled with clotted blood, and

there was extravasation of blood under the skin of the face. On the eyelid was a slight wound scarcely penetrating to the orbit, which might have been caused by a sharp or cutting instrument, but could not in their opinion have produced death. On opening the body no internal injury was discernible. The reporters added their opinion that the extravasated blood, swelling of the head and ecchymosis, were occasioned by a fall or by blows, and that death had been produced either by hæmorrhage or suffocation. It was, moreover, stated by a physician present from curiosity at the examination, that the eye was ecchymosed, and the wound irregular and indented.

On connecting this report with the known fact that the deceased had formerly constant quarrels with her son and daughter-in-law, the supreme court of Arras came to the conclusion that they had murdered her. Montbailly and his wife were condemned to be broken on the wheel, and on him the sentence was actually executed. A respite was granted to the woman on account of her pregnancy. During the interval, a revision of the trial being procured, the opinion of the celebrated Louis was taken on the facts. Upon full investigation he decided, that it was much more probable that the individual died from apoplexy than any other cause. The following are some of the grounds for his conclusion. Intemperance predisposes to sanguineous apoplexy; the reporters, therefore, have neglected their duty in not opening the head of the deceased; had they done so, the condition of the brain might have explained the cause of hæmorrhage. A person predisposed to that complaint would naturally lose a great quantity of blood on falling in a state of intoxication against any sharp-edged substance; the arteries and veins of the head would be also much distended. The livid spots found on the thorax and arms of the deceased, and attributed by the reporters to blows or falling, are appearances ordinarily seen in those who die drunk. Further, the body was examined at the end of the month of July, 32 hours after death. There might have been present incipient putrefaction, which would account, perhaps, for the swelling of the head, lividness of the thorax, and other similar symptoms.

On these grounds it was Louis' opinion that there were no proofs of assassination whatever. The superior Court of Arras, in consequence, revoked their decision, exonerated the memory of Montbailly, and enjoined medical practitioners thereafter to extend their examination *to every part of the bodies* of those found dead.

In the instances where death results from wounds or blows, it is generally very difficult to trace them to the real author. There is scarcely any external injury which may not be inflicted by the sufferer himself, and a great many may be occasioned by pure accident. Gathering, however, from the direction and nature of the wound, the position of the arm producing it, some presumption may, generally, be deduced for or against suicide. If the traces of violence commence from behind, as in the case of a ball passing through the body, entering at the back: or if the defunct, to commit the act, must have employed his left hand, as in the case of a throat cut from right to left, we have a strong probability against self-murder. The irregularity of the wound, if inflicted by a sharp weapon; bruises about the rest of the body; and other signs indicating a struggle for life, will often throw light on the question. It may be as well to quote two or three cases illustrative of these difficulties, and we will begin with one of accidental death, which to the superficial observer, presented every appearance of assassination. It occurred near Morges, in Switzerland, in the year 1792.

A man in a state of excessive drunkenness left the inn where he had been carousing about 11 at night, to return to his home at the distance of half a league. The weather was cold, and the ground covered with snow. He was found dead next morning at the side of a ditch not far from his own door. A report that he had been murdered became prevalent, and *a medical*

man who saw the body asserted the certainty of it. The suspected murderer was already marked out, when Dr. Desgranges, then residing at Morges, was ordered to inspect the body.

No traces of violence were found, until on turning the head from the left to the right side, there appeared an oblique wound beneath the lower jaw, and measuring externally about three quarters of an inch, and in depth a little more. The clothes of the deceased, as well as the snow on which he lay, were profusely stained with blood.

As this wound bore no resemblance to those inflicted by ordinary instruments, Desgranges was led to the belief, that the injury was caused by an auger which the deceased had taken with him from the tavern and carried under his arm with the handle backwards. This was found at the side of the man, covered with clotted blood. Upon opening the wound and inserting the auger, it was discovered to apply completely; the size of the aperture internally was larger also, than the external appearance indicated. Further, on dissection it was ascertained that the left carotid had been wounded, and that the hemorrhage therefrom had been the immediate cause of death. These facts seemed to decide that the injury was accidental, and it was conjectured that in endeavouring to extract the auger on which he had fallen, the deceased had moved it round, and thus made the internal wound larger than the orifice.

In the following case which occurred at Hertford in the 4th year of Charles the First, we find a jury mistaking murder for suicide. The report of it was found among the papers of the eminent Sir John Maynard, a name familiar to our legal readers.

Jane Norcote was found dead in her bed with her throat cut. On the deposition of two females and a man, relations of the deceased who slept in an adjoining room, that she went to bed with her child the night before during the absence of her husband, and that no person entered the house afterwards, the coroner's jury returned a verdict of *felo de se.* But a suspicion being excited against the deponents, the jury, before their verdict was drawn up in form, desired that the corpse might be disinterred, which was done accordingly thirty days after death, and the jury then charged the relations with the murder. They were tried at the Hertford assizes, and acquitted so entirely against evidence, that Harvey J. suggested the propriety of an appeal, which was thereupon brought by the child against his father, grandmother, aunt, and her husband Okeman.

The evidence was as follows. The deceased lay in a composed manner in her bed, the clothes not at all disturbed, and the child by her side. The throat was cut from ear to ear, and the neck broken. There was no blood on the bed saving a slight tincture on the bolster where her head lay. From the bed's head ran a stream of blood, which ponded in large quantities in the bendings of the floor. At the bed's foot was a similar stream, which likewise ponded on the floor in great abundance. But there was no continuance or communication of blood between these two streams, neither on the bed nor on the floor. It was further deposed, that on turning up the mat, clots of congealed blood were found in the straw underneath. The bloody knife was found sticking in the floor a good distance from the bed, with the point towards, and the haft from it. Upon the haft was a print of the thumb and four fingers of a left hand.

The accused were all found guilty except Okeman, and suffered death without making confession.

THE CONTRAST.

At a meeting, held not long since at Washington, over which Gov. Cass presided, Messrs. Webster, Frelinghuysen, Grundy, and Wayne—men

coming from different sections of the Union, belonging to opposing parties in politics, but each of them distinguished in his native State—delivered their sentiments, in an eloquent and forcible strain, in favour of temperance and temperance societies, and in advocacy of the principle of total abstinence. Lord Chancellor Brougham, the man of the people, who has laboured so successfully to diffuse among them the blessings of education, and is now foremost of the advocates of parliamentary reform, has said, *If he had the power, as he had the disposition, he would entirely prohibit the use of ardent spirits.* O'Connell, on a memorable occasion, pending a county election, enjoined his countrymen and friends, as they valued their reputation, and the cause of equal privileges which they advocated, not to let whiskey pass their lips: they obeyed his wishes, and succeeded, not only in returning their candidate, but in avoiding any approach to riot or disorder; thus signally triumphing over their enemies, and affording a fine moral lesson to all Ireland.

Mark now the contrast. Pending the recent discussion in the Senate, at Harrisburgh, for repealing the disgraceful and immoral law just passed for licensing oyster-cellars, and all other kind of shops, to retail ardent spirits, Mr. Burden took occasion to indulge in the following strain of invective against the Pennsylvania Temperance Society. "He said, the Temperance Society was a dangerous *secret* association. It was composed of a set of *hypocrites*—those that got drunk, and yet preached up temperance." And again, "The Temperance Society of Philadelphia had not spoken the truth—they were liars, &c. &c." Arguments cannot persuade, nor benevolence warm this senatorial traducer of men, whose motives he is incapable of appreciating. We should have thought it a waste of time and paper to introduce him, for the purpose of contrasting the distinguished men at Washington, and those of the British parliament, with a mere automaton, spouting, in tones of anger, the language of Billingsgate,—were it not to ask, whether the city of Penn, of Franklin, of Benezet, and of Rush, will tolerate any longer a man who declaims in a style which even the keepers of grog-shops, and liquor retailers in general, would be ashamed of? Are the people prepared to countenance the foul aspersions cast by their Senator on a Society which numbers among its members such active philanthropists as a Roberts Vaux, a Matthew Carey, and an Alexander Henry; or such benevolent men and sound republicans as Jacob Holgate, John Goodman, Joseph S. Riley, and many others of similar standing in its community—to say nothing of the members of different professions enrolled in the temperance cause?

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Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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It may well be said of him who neglects the beauties of the early morning hour, that he but half enjoys his existence. The sweetness and freshness of the air—the softened landscape—the glories of the rising sun and the melody of all nature, as it awakes to renewed life and vigour, diffuse a sense of pleasure throughout the frame; imparting to the mind a calm delight, and producing an equally beneficial influence upon the bodily health.

> "Who the melodies of morn can tell?
> The wild brook babbling down the mountain's side;
> The lowing herd; the sheepfold's simple bell;
> The pipe of early shepherd, dim descried
> In the lone valley; echoing far and wide
> The clamorous horn along the cliffs above;
> The hollow murmur of the ocean tide;
> The hum of bees, the linnet's lay of love,
> And the full choir that wakes the universal grove."

So sang the minstrel Beattie, and equally glowing and energetic have been the praises bestowed by other poets upon the beauties of this sweetest period of the day: nor has the physician withheld his voice from praise of the genial influence of "the balmy breeze of incense-breathing morn" upon the body of man. So essential indeed is its enjoyment to a perfect and continued state of health, that there is scarce an instance of a person having attained to any considerable longevity who has not been an early riser. To all, the following exquisite lines of the author of the

Seasons, speak an important lesson. The man of taste will need no other to rouse him betimes to active life.

> "Falsely luxurious, will not man awake,
> And springing from the bed of sloth, enjoy
> The cool, the fragrant, and the silent hour,
> To meditation due and sacred song?
> For is there aught in sleep can charm the wise?
> To lie in dead oblivion; losing half
> The fleeting moments of too short a life;
> Total extinction of the enlightened soul!
> Or else, to feverish vanity alive,
> Wildered, and tossing through distempered dreams?
> Who would in such a gloomy state remain
> Longer than nature craves, when every muse,
> And every blooming pleasure wait without
> To bless the wildly devious morning walk!"

Of all the changes that have taken place in the arrangements of social life, there are none more opposed to the maintenance of health, and the dictates of good sense, than those which relate to the hours of rising, and retiring to bed, and the period for taking our meals. Formerly the highest classes of society in Europe, even royalty itself, rose with the lark, dined at noon, and retired to bed about eight or nine in the evening. These hours have been gradually changed for others later and still later; and now, we find the fashionable world lazily emerging from their couches, when their ancestors had completed the active pastimes, to which the former part of the day was dedicated, dining without appetite about the hour when the latter retired to rest, and seeking their beds, for a great part of the year, about the time their forefathers rose, that is, when the morning is about to unfold all its glories. Although these absurd practices are not followed to the same extent in this country as among the fashionables of Europe, yet, even here, how very few of those in easy circumstances, prove from experience, how sweet it is

> ———To gaze, at early morn,
> On the wavy spears of the golden corn;
> How sweet to mark the new born day,
> When night with her clouds hath passed away:
> When the far off hills and the mountains high
> Are glancing clear mid the azure sky,
> And the milk-maid gaily flies along
> With her noiseless step and her mermaid song—
> And the pearly dew drops glittering lie,
> Like the bright tears rain'd from beauty's eye.

They who consume in sleep the morning hours, can lay but slight claims to that pure taste and genuine devotion which animate the breast of the real student of nature, nor the healthful elasticity of frame possessed by him who delights in those inward joys—those sublime and secret sensations of gratitude towards his Maker, which are elicited by contemplating the creation at

that period, when, throwing off the dark curtain of night, it appears to rejoice in newness of life beneath the returning smile of the god of day—who woos Hygeia at her favourite shrine, and receives from her rosy fingers the reward and badge that distinguish her votaries—the crimson tinged cheek and sparkling eye.

Divinity itself is best adored in the open fields, and at that hour and season, when, in the language of Byron,

> "Mighty nature bounds as from her birth,
> The sun is in the heavens and life on earth;
> Flowers in the valley, splendour in the beam,
> Health on the gale, and freshness in the stream."

Milton in his Allegro, and Paradise Lost, most exquisitely expresses himself on these circumstances; and it is remarked by Bishop Newton, that the beautiful scenes which that poet exhibits of rural cheerfulness, give us at the same time a fine picture of the regularity of his life, and the innocence and devotion of his mind. Thus he describes himself as in a situation,

> "To hear the lark begin his flight,
> And, singing, startle the dull night,
> From his watch-tower in the skies,
> 'Till the dappled dawn arise."

We dare not indulge in a recital of all the delightful descriptions given by this bard of Paradise, of the morning hour and its enjoyments.

The following lines from a female pen may not perhaps be useless to our readers, in urging upon them a due attention to their own health, joined with a feeling of gratitude towards their Maker, on beholding every living creature in action, and after being buried in the gloom and silence of night, becoming sensible to new returns of pleasure, and new capacities of enjoyment.

> "Those little songsters mounted high,
> Harmonious carol to the sky;
> To heaven their tuneful offerings pay,
> And seem to hail the new born day!
> Sweet bird! instructed by thy lays,
> Can man forget his Maker's praise?
> Reviving from the shade of night,
> Can he behold the all-quick'ning light,
> Can he enclose his sluggish eyes,
> Nor send one rapture to the skies?"

But in the language of John Wesley, "To rise early requires that you should *sleep* early; secure this point at all events, in spite of the most dear and agreeable companions—in spite of their most earnest solicitations—in spite of entreaties, railleries, or reproaches, rigorously keep your hour.—Above all things, be steady; keep your hour of rising without interruption; do not rise for two mornings, and then be in bed on the third; but

what you have resolved once, observe constantly. 'But my head-aches'—don't regard that, it will soon be over. 'But I am uncommonly drowsy; my eyes are quite heavy'—then immediately rouse yourself and start up at once—rise and dress yourself at your appointed hour. Perhaps you may say 'The advice is good, but it comes too late; I have made a breach already; I did for a season arise constantly at a fixed hour, but have given way by little and little, and have now left off for a considerable time.' Then in the name of God begin again! begin to-morrow or rather begin *to-night*, by going to bed early, in spite of either business or company. Begin with less self-confidence than before; in a little time the difficulty will cease, but the benefit will last for ever!"

FIXED AIR, OR CARBONIC ACID—DAMPS.

We had marked, sometime in the last summer, an article in a western paper, entitled "Valuable Discovery," with the intention of making some comments and explanations on the subject to which it refers. The valuable discovery announced by the newspaper editor as the result of accident in his own immediate neighbourhood, is familiar to the medical profession. It would seem, from the narrative, that a Mr. Vial and his son, of Medina county, Ohio, while engaged in digging a well, were rendered lifeless by inhaling the gas, or *damps*, as it is familiarly called. A third person, who was on the point of descending into the well, finding how matters stood, started off in great haste for a physician, who resided at some distance from the place. During his absence one of several females, who had assembled with a determination to make an effort to raise the bodies, threw down into the well a pail full of water, most of which fell on the face of Mr. Vial, who was immediately resuscitated thereby, and who, rising on his feet, and seizing the breathless and apparently lifeless body of his son, succeeded in getting into the tub let down by his fair deliverers, and was by them brought up to the surface. Mr. V. in a few hours recovered his usual health and strength, and the young man was, by medical aid, able to walk about the next day.

Carbonic acid, or fixed air, is found in small proportion in the atmospheric or common air. Its presence is not accidental or occasional, since it is found in the air at the summit of the loftiest mountains, as well as that over low grounds, where there is much vegetable decay. When formed at the bottom of old wells, or pits, it is commonly called *damps*, or *choke damp*. In such places it is usually generated from dead vegetable matters. Being heavier than the common air, it remains for a length of

time near the surface of the ground whence it is formed, as the traveller well knows who has visited the *Grotto del Cane*, near Naples. Carbonic acid is largely given out from the lungs in respiration, and also from the skin: and hence the deleterious effects of the air of close crowded apartments. The carbonic acid thus exhaled is a poison to those who are compelled to respire it without a supply of fresh atmospheric air. We have more than once had occasion to refer to the horrible death of those Englishmen, who were locked up all night in a close dungeon, (generally called the Black Hole) in Fort William at Calcutta. One hundred and forty-six individuals were imprisoned in a room twenty feet square, with only one small window, and before the next morning all but twenty-three died under the most dreadful of tortures—that of slowly increasing suffocation.

Carbonic acid is unfitted to support either combustion or respiration, since it extinguishes flame with greater promptitude than it destroys animal life. A common means, therefore, of ascertaining the purity of the air in an old well, or pit, or mine, is to first introduce a candle, or some ignited substance, and if it be extinguished the air is considered unfit for respiration. The inference from the experiment is a correct one; but the converse is not true, since it has been found that, on occasions, lights may burn in air, the inhaling of which is directly deleterious and destructive to life. An instance to this effect occurred some years ago, at Leadhills, in Great Britain; seven miners lost their lives, although their lights burnt tolerably well.

Carbonic acid is largely given out during the process of fermentation: it is the gas or air, which we see in certain wines, as champaigne, and in beer and porter, to which it communicates an agreeable pungency. A French physician has related the case of a servant who, on entering a cellar where grape-juice was fermenting, became suddenly giddy, and under a vague impression of terror fled from the place, dropping her candle on the floor, and shut the door behind her. She fell down insensible outside the door, and those who went to her assistance found, on opening the door, that the light continued to burn.

The fumes of burning charcoal have been long known to be deleterious, and often directly destructive to life. The atmospheric air, or rather the oxygen of the atmosphere, combining with ignited charcoal, forms carbonic acid, which is the deleterious agent. Death has often resulted from a neglect to afford a vent, by means of a chimney or pipe communicating with the outer air, for the fumes, or carbonic acid, the product of ignited charcoal. Whether as a fuel for giving warmth, and for culinary purposes, or used in manufactories, this latter should never be employed in close apartments, or in those in which some provision has not been made for conveying away the fumes.

Carbonic acid forms a component part of limestone, marble, and chalk, and when driven off from these by combustion leaves a caustic earth or quicklime behind. We are made readily sensible of its presence by the addition of a stronger acid, whether mineral, as the sulphuric, or vegetable, as vinegar, which combines with the lime to the exclusion of the carbonic acid, or fixed air, which escapes in numerous bubbles, and forms a kind of foam. It is by this process that the carbonic acid is obtained for mixing with water, and constituting the common soda water of the shops.

Given out so largely as it is in the burning of limestone, for the purpose of obtaining quicklime, we can easily understand the reason of the accidents which have occurred to those who have slept before the traps of lime-kilns. The carbonic acid, being heavier than the common air of the atmosphere, settles down near the earth, and of course near the trap of the kiln; and it is inhaled with deadly effect by the persons who may happen to be near it. In the month of April, 1806, a family of seven individuals, at Marseilles, were suffocated by the vapour from a lime-kiln, which was burnt clandestinely in the yard of the house: it entered by the windows and door. Of the seven, five perished and two were saved. All attempted to avoid their fate by leaving the house; and as it was during the night that the event took place, some were found on the stairs, and some in the doorway with a lamp in hand, in the attitude of flight.

A few words respecting the *treatment* of persons suffocated by the vapour from charcoal, or the carbonic acid, as found in old wells, pits, and mines, constituting the *choke damp*, will close the article.

The patient is to be freely exposed to the open air, without our entertaining any fears of its coldness: he should be stripped, and placed on his back, with his head and shoulders somewhat raised. Water, or cold vinegar and water, is to be dashed on the body, and especially on the face and chest at intervals. It is also to be rubbed with wet and cold cloths. At the end of three or four minutes the parts thus wet are to be dried with napkins or towels, and in two or three minutes more, we are to recommence with the aspersions and frictions.

Frictions are to be used to the soles of the feet, palms of the hands, and along the whole course of the spine, with a strong horse-hair brush.

The nostrils are to be gently irritated by a feather or a small roll of paper. Volatile salts or ammonia may be passed under them, so as to stimulate their lining membrane, and call into sympathetic action the respiratory apparatus, as happens in health when the nose is tickled with a feather, or snuff is taken for the first time

Insufflation of the lungs, by blowing air into them by means of a bellows, or from the mouth of an assistant, has been recommended. No force should be used on such occasions, since it would seem from some late experiments that there would be danger of tearing the tissue of the lungs, by strongly blowing into them. Moderately pressing on the chest with the palm of the hand, after the introduction of air through one of the nostrils, while the other is kept closed, will be of service.

That part of the treatment, which consists in the internal use of remedies, will readily suggest itself to the physician in attendance.

We must not, however, omit recommending blood-letting as, next to cold affusions and aspersions, useful in the treatment of suffocation. The blood may be drawn either from the arm or the head. In a case which happened at Paris, where a lady tried to make away with herself by breathing charcoal fumes, and was found in a state of almost hopeless insensibility, various remedies were tried unsuccessfully, until cupping the nape of the neck was resorted to, and she rapidly recovered.

SUPERSTITIONS.

We can scarcely be considered as turning aside from the main object of this journal, by offering a few brief remarks upon some of the superstitious notions which were formerly entertained by nearly all classes of society, and are even now fondly cherished as truths by many individuals. He that is not aware of the powerful influence which ignorance and superstition exert over the health and physical well being of the human system, has yet to learn an important lesson.

There would appear to exist naturally in the human mind, from the mutual influence of the different organs of the brain, and the consequent association of ideas, a disposition to attach notions of good or of evil to those objects which have been observed to precede, or to accompany pleasurable or painful occurrences: hence the origin of many superstitious opinions. From such association of ideas many animals were anciently worshipped, either as gods or evil spirits; and even at a later period, when their worship was rejected as profane or useless, they were still considered as indicators of evil or of good. Many of these superstitions originated in the observance of facts, ascribable to atmospheric influence. Thus, certain birds being affected by peculiarities of the air, previous to thunder storms or other terrible events, and showing signs of their feelings by peculiar habits or motions, were found to be the indicators of tempests, hurricanes, and other dangerous atmospherical commotions; and they were

subsequently considered as evil omens in general; gaining, as it were, an ill name by their utility as monitors. So the crow, garrulous before stormy weather, was afterwards regarded as a predictor of general misfortune. Many animals too, were considered by the ancients as influenced by human prayers and supplications. In this manner the observance of many real facts laid the foundation for superstitions, which terrified the ignorant, and which the designing made use of in order to acquire respect, and to aggrandize themselves. Hence the rise of sorcerers, augurs, interpreters of dreams, omens, and portents, and other impostors, who pretended, in the peculiar flight and songs of birds, to read the destinies of individuals and of nations. It is probable that out of a number of such predictions, some might happen to be true, where the sagacity of the augur penetrated farther into probable events than the ignorance of the multitude; and this fortuitous coincidence enhanced the public credulity, strengthened the empire of superstition, depressed the mental and physical energies of the people, and became a fatal impediment to the progress of science throughout succeeding ages. It may be interesting to examine a few cases in point for the sake of illustration.

Among all the birds of evil report among the ancients, the owl stands foremost, as being the one most generally regarded as the harbinger of mischief and of death. Pliny, the natural historian, represents the large eared or horned owl, *strix bubo*, as a funeral bird, a monitor of the night, the abomination of human kind. And Virgil describes its death howl from the temple by night; a circumstance introduced by the poet, as a precursor of the death of Dido. Ovid constantly speaks of the presence of this bird as an evil omen; and the same notions respecting it may be found in the effusions of most of the ancient poets: indeed, there is scarcely a poet, ancient or modern, who does not speak of the owl in this point of view. The superstitious opinion that this bird is the harbinger of death, still prevails among the ignorant of many parts of Europe. The striking, sapient, mysterious, and peculiar look of this bird, the strangeness of its habits, its occasional and uncertain appearance in towns, and its loud and dismal cry, uttered often when all other birds are quiet, as well as its being the bird of night, are the circumstances which, aided by an occasional coincidence of events, have caused the owl to be regarded in the light of an evil omen. This and similar superstitions will appear less surprising, when it is considered that crafty and designing persons had a direct interest in their propagation.

The dread attached to the owl seems to have been extended to other birds of the night; a circumstance which rather corroborates the idea that they were dreaded, in a great measure, from be-

ing companions of darkness and obscurity. Spencer has given us a most woful catalogue of harmful fowls, in the second book of the Fairie Queene. The hollow booming of the bittern, from the pool, on a still evening, and the hoarse sound of the nycticorax and fernowl, are equally striking—may be easily imagined plaintive, and seem capable, when uttered in the stillness of the evening, of exciting ideas of melancholy, and of inducing in the minds of the vulgar and ignorant, a notion of their being connected with misfortune.

It was long ago observed, that the frequent immersion of certain fowls in the water portended rain; and they were, consequently, considered unlucky alites; while others, who never dived, were regarded as good signs,—a fact observed by Niphus in his book of augury, who quotes a verse to that effect from Amilius; and Virgil makes Venus predict the safety of the Trojan fleet to Eneas from the flight of swans. Another familiar instance of the effect of association of ideas is the following:—Vultures, who prey on carcasses, naturally followed armies, and inhabited the field of battle after the conflict: the ancients, therefore, associated their appearance with bloodshed and destruction, and they became evil omens, particularly when following in the tract of armies.

There is a superstitious respect paid to the swallow and the martin in many parts of Europe at the present day. Their nests are protected, and it is considered unlucky to molest them even by accident. This is a very old opinion, mentioned by many writers; and the circumstance of their building so close to the habitations of man seems to indicate that they have long enjoyed freedom from molestation. For animals would appear to regulate their conduct according to circumstances; and it is not only that the individual learns to avoid danger, but the whole species seems by degrees to become apprized of the state of either enmity or amity existing between them and man, and to act in conformity with this knowledge. The religion of the Brahmins protects animals from injury, and hence, in parts of India, hawks and other birds of prey are so familiar and daring, as to snatch the food from out of dishes, as men are carrying them from the kitchen to the place of repast. The Turks have also a superstitious tenderness for birds, and Constantinople has been called the paradise of the feathered race. The respect paid to the swallow may have originated in its being the harbinger of spring, and from its inhabiting churches, temples, and other sacred places, and, perhaps, in some measure also, from its usefulness in clearing the air of insects. The low flight of swallows predicts rain; and their settling on buildings is an autumnal custom previous to their departure, or to the commencement of wintry weather; hence have they, perhaps, been considered

by some as portending evil. The crowing of the cock was reckoned ominous, particularly as prophesying the event of wars. The crowing of the cock presaged the victory of Themistocles over the Persians. A victory of the Bœotians over the Lacedemonians was, also, said to be foretold by the same bird.

It is an old observation, that the appearance of a certain species of beetle, called *Tenebrio mortisagus*, was a presage of death; which may be founded on observation. For the appearance of the insect may, in reality, forbode the death of the sick persons in a house where it is observed; since the same peculiarity of atmosphere which may force the beetle to leave its hiding place, may be such an one as would produce the death of the patient. If it be by any such association of ideas as those which we have described, that most of the superstitious devotions paid to particular birds and animals have originated, the worship of the Ibis, and of the Scarabeus in Egypt, and of many other animals in Asia and Africa, might, with some care, be shown to have sprung from a similar source. The reader, desirous of further details connected with this subject, is referred to Foster's Researches, chap. x.

INFLUENCE OF THE ATMOSPHERE.

It is an almost universal belief that the condition of the atmosphere exerts a very powerful influence upon health: and this belief would appear to be founded in truth. There are few persons who have not experienced a degree of depression in their spirits, and certain uneasy sensations, more or less approaching to disease, during the continuance of dull, damp and gloomy weather, and an almost instant renovation, both of their mental and physical energies, when the sun breaks forth again in all its splendour, and the face of nature assumes a gay and cheerful aspect. When, indeed, we contrast our sensations during spring and autumn, summer and winter—during night and day—morning and evening—while we enjoy the fresh breezes of the healthful plain, or inhale the stagnant and loaded air of the low and marshy valley, we cannot for a moment doubt that the human system is affected, to a very great degree, by the state of the atmosphere and its various changes. Many of the sensations just referred to, may, no doubt, be occasioned by the impression made upon the mind by light and darkness—by the gloom or cheerfulness of external nature, or by the different emotions excited by a contemplation of the renewal of vegetable life—the bursting forth of the bud and flower in the season of spring—the glories of summer—the sober livery assumed by garden, field, and forest, as the year declines—and the dreariness and desolation of winter. But they are all nevertheless intimately connected

with the direct effects of the state of the atmosphere upon the functions of the living organs, while some owe their birth to these alone. Among the latter are evidently to be classed a large number, if not all, of those diseases denominated epidemics. Whenever a number of persons of various ages, of dissimilar constitutions and habits of life, and at different places, become almost at the same moment the subjects of disease, as is often the case, it is rational to attribute their malady to some general cause then prevailing; and the very common occurrence of these wide spread diseases during particular kinds of weather, at particular monthly periods, or at stated seasons of the year, naturally suggests the belief that such cause resides in the air. But it is not merely the sensible changes and condition of the atmosphere—it is not the heat nor cold, nor dampness, nor drought of the air, which is alone concerned in producing disease, nor yet the sudden transition from one to another of these states. Disorders are often occasioned by some peculiarity of the atmosphere, which is known only by its effects. We may speculate as to its nature and its cause, but we have no means of determining either the one or the other. Many have supposed that the morbid condition of the air referred to, consists in some inexplicable change in its state of electricity, and have offered facts in support of their opinion, which, if not convincing, are at least imposing. The sensations experienced in limbs which have been formerly broken; the recurrence of rheumatic pains in those who have before been subject to them, and the increased intensity in the symptoms of many chronic complaints, a short time previous to a change of weather; the disturbed state of the stomach of many persons before and during thunder storms; the severe affections of the head; the hysterical and convulsive affections not unfrequently experienced under the same circumstances, by individuals of what is termed a nervous temperament, may be adduced as facts favouring the idea that it is an electric change in the atmosphere which causes it to act unfavourably upon the health of the animal system. During what has been denominated unhealthy weather, says Foster, in his work on the atmosphere, when physicians have spoken of the general ill health of their patients, I have remarked circumstances which appeared to denote an irregular distribution of the atmospheric electricity.

A change in the wind, particularly a change from any other quarter to east, causes most people to feel uncomfortable, and excites various morbid sensations in the valetudinarian. Similar changes would seem to produce the most violent effects when they occur about the new or full moon. It is difficult to ascertain in what degree the directions and changes of the wind are under the influence of electricity; but there are many circumstances which would incline one to believe that these

changes are dependent on some similar principle to that which causes epidemic diseases; for certain winds, as well as certain changes of wind, are known to precede the occurrence of violent epidemical diseases in many parts of the world. In almost every part of the globe, the east wind is proverbially unhealthy. Casual changes to east, produce head-ache and various nervous sensations; and a long continued wind from that quarter is followed, most generally, by an unhealthy season. It is curious too, that during east winds correct astronomical observations cannot be made: the luminous objects seem to dance or wave about in the field of the telescope.—But we must here stop for the present.

MINE HOST IN HIS GARDEN.

The next morning Walter rose early, and, descending into the courtyard of the inn, he there met with the landlord, who, a hoe in his hand, was just about to enter a little gate that led into the garden. He held the gate open for Walter.

"It is a fine morning, sir; would you like to look into the garden?" said mine host, with an inviting smile.

Walter accepted the offer, and found himself in a large and well-stocked garden, laid out with much neatness and some taste. The landlord halted by a parterre which required his attention, and Walter walked on in solitary reflection.

The morning was serene and clear, but the frost mingled the freshness with an "eager and nipping air;" and Walter unconsciously quickened his step as he paced to and fro the straight walk that bisected the garden, with his eyes on the ground, and his hat over his brow.

Thus chewing the cud of his involved and deep reflection, the young adventurer paused at last opposite his host, who was still bending over his pleasant task, and every now and then, excited by the exercise and the fresh morning air, breaking into snatches of some old rustic song. The contrast in mood between himself and this—

"Unvexed loiterer by the world's green ways"

struck forcibly upon him. Mine host, too, was one whose appearance was better suited to his occupation than his profession. He might have told some three-and-sixty years, but it was a comely and green old age; his cheek was firm and ruddy, not with nightly cups, but the fresh whiteness of the morning breezes it was wont to court; his frame was robust, not corpulent; and his long gray hair, which fell almost to his shoulder, his clear blue eyes, and a pleasant curve in a mouth characterized by habitual good-humour, completed a portrait that even many a dull observer would have paused to gaze upon; and, indeed, the good man enjoyed a certain kind of reputation for his comely looks and cheerful manner. His picture had even been taken by a young artist in the neighbourhood; nay, the likeness had been multiplied into engravings, somewhat rude and somewhat unfaithful, which might be seen occupying no inconspicuous or dusty corner in the principal print-shop of the town; nor was mine host's character a contradiction to his looks. He had seen enough of life to be intelligent, and had judged it rightly enough to be kind. He had passed that line so nicely given to man's codes

in those admirable pages which first added delicacy of tact to the strong sense of English composition. "We have just religion enough," it is said somewhere in the Spectator, "to make us hate, but not enough to make us love, one another." Our good landlord—peace be with his ashes!—had never halted at this limit. The country innkeeper might have furnished Goldsmith with a counterpart to his country curate; his house was equally hospitable to the poor, his heart equally tender, in a nature wiser than experience, to error, and equally open in its warm simplicity to distress. Peace be with thee, *******! Our grandsire was thy patron, yet a patron thou didst not want. Merit in thy capacity is seldom bare of reward. The public want no indictators to a house like thine; and who requires a third person to tell him how to appreciate the value of good-nature and good cheer?

As Walter stood, and contemplated the old man bending over the sweet fresh earth (and then, glancing round, saw the quiet garden stretching away on either side with its boundaries lost among the thick evergreen,) something of that grateful and moralizing stillness with which some country scene (the *rura et silentium*) generally inspires us, when we awake to its consciousness from the troubled dream of dark and unquiet thought, stole over his mind: and certain old lines which his uncle, who loved the soft and rustic morality that pervades the ancient race of English minstrels, had taught him when a boy, came pleasantly into his recollection,

> "With all, as in some rare-limn'd book, we see
> Here painted lectures of God's sacred will:
> The daisy teacheth lowliness of mind;
> The chamomile, we should be patient still;
> The rhue, our hate of Vice's poison ill;
> The woodbine, that we should our friendship hold;
> Our hope the savory in the bitterest cold." *

The old man stopped from his work as the musing figure of his guest darkened the prospect before him, and said,

"A pleasant time, sir, for the gardener!"

"Ay, is it so? you must miss the fruits and flowers of summer."

"Well, sir,—but we are now paying back the garden for the good things it has given us. It is like taking care of a friend in old age, who has been kind to us when he was young."

Walter smiled at the quaint amiability of the idea.

"'Tis a winning thing, sir, a garden!—It brings us an object every day; and that's what I think a man ought to have if he wishes to lead a happy life."

"It is true," said Walter; and mine host was encouraged to continue by the attention and affable countenance of the stranger, for he was a physiognomist in his way.

"And then, sir, we have no disappointment in these objects:—the soil is not ungrateful, as, they say, men are—though I have not often found them so, by-the-by. What we sow we reap. I have an old book, sir, lying in my little parlour, all about fishing, and full of so many pretty sayings about a country life, and meditation, and so forth, that it does one as much good as a sermon to look into it. But to my mind, all those sayings are more applicable to a gardener's life than a fisherman's."

"It is a less cruel life, certainly," said Walter.

"Yes, sir; and the scenes one makes one's self; the flowers one plants with one's own hand, one enjoys more than all the beauties which don't owe us any thing; at least, so it seems to me.

[*Eugene Aram.*

* Henry Peacham.

HOWARD'S PERSONAL EXPERIENCE.

All our readers have heard of the celebrated philanthropist Howard—most of them are aware of his unparalleled exertions to improve the state of the prisons in Great Britain and Ireland, and of his many journeys, not only to all parts of the two islands, but to every country in Europe. Exposed, as Howard necessarily was, to numerous causes of disease, from fatiguing exertions, changes of climate, visiting the close dungeon with its often horribly impure and deteriorated air, his system of dietetics cannot be without interest as example and encouragement to others. We offer now details of what we took occasion to give a sketch in our first volume.*

His medical attendants considering his constitution much inclined to consumption, put him upon a very rigorous regimen, which is said by one of his biographers to have laid the foundation of that extraordinary abstemiousness and indifference to the gratification of his palate, which ever after so much distinguished him. We wish much, that parents who have the health of their children at heart, (and we are sorry to say that many seem to have no thought on the subject) would meditate well on this passage. Similar experience can, we know, be furnished in the cases of other invalids, and also of children, who, by long pursuing a simple regimen, lost all relish for stimulating food—made dishes, condiments, &c.

About the thirty-third or thirty-fourth year of his age, Howard was attacked by a fit of the gout, so severe as to confine him to his room for six months. Many persons in his situation, even at the present day, would think this a necessary evil, to which they could only oppose patience and flannel—with certain cordials, and a little generous wine to keep the enemy from the stomach. It is by absurdities of this kind, sanctioned, on occasions, by physicians, that gout becomes so formidable a disease. Under a suitable treatment, at first medical and afterwards dietetic, it is as readily cured and kept away as many other maladies, the approach of which excites but little fears for their progress or result. Howard adopted the only plan by which he could promise himself, with any prospect of success, immunity from future attacks. He made a resolution, never again to drink wine, or spirituous liquors of any kind; a resolution that he most scrupulously kept to the day of his death.

A temperate man requires less sleep and can bear more fatigue than one who indulges his appetite by eating much animal food, with rich sauces, and drinking distilled and fermented liquors. One, among the many illustrations of this fact, is in the mode of living pursued by Howard, while he was preparing his work (in 1777) on the prisons which he had visited during the preceding three years:

"For the purpose of being near the scene of his labours in superintending the progress of his work, he took lodgings in a house close to his printer's shop; and so indefatigable was he in his attention to the business which had fixed his temporary abode there, that, during a very severe winter, he was always called up by two in the morning, though he did not retire to rest until ten, and sometimes half after ten at night. His reason for this early rising was, that he found the morning the stillest part of the day, and that in which he was the least disturbed in his work of revising the sheets as they came from the press. At seven he regularly dressed for the day, and had his breakfast; when, punctually at eight, he repaired to the printing office, and remained there until the workmen went to dinner, at one, when he returned to his lodgings, and, putting some bread and raisins, or other dried fruit, in his pocket, generally took a walk in the outskirts of the town, during their ab-

* P. 59—61.

sence, eating, as he walked along, his hermit fare; which, with a glass of water on his return, was the only dinner he ever took. After his walk, when he had returned to the printing office, he generally remained there until the men left work; and then, I am informed, repaired to Mr. Aikin's house, to go through with him any sheets which might have been composed during the day; or if there were nothing upon which he wished to consult him, would either spend an hour with some other friend, or return to his own lodgings, where he took his tea or coffee in lieu of supper, and at his usual hour retired to bed."

He adhered, when on his tours of inspection and inquiry, to the same simple regimen:

"In his earlier tours through England, Scotland, and Ireland, he was usually attended by his faithful domestic, John Prole, who still occasionally acted as his groom. They travelled on horseback, about forty miles a day. 'He was never,' says a gentleman of Dublin, who had much free conversation with him on this subject, 'at a loss for an inn. When in Ireland, or the Highlands of Scotland, he used to stop at one of the poor cabins that stuck up a rag by way of sign, and get a little milk.—When he came to a town he was to sleep at, he bespoke a supper, with wine and beer, like another traveller, but made his man attend him, and take it away, whilst he was preparing his bread and milk. He always paid the waiters, postillions, &c. liberally, because he would have no discontent or dispute, nor suffer his spirits to be agitated for such a matter; saying, that in a journey which might cost three or four hundred pounds, fifteen or twenty pounds addition was not worth thinking about.'"

In another part of the volume* from which we derive our information, we find the following additional particulars:

"In the various tours in the course of the years 1778—9, he adopted the same mode of travelling as he had done upon his former tours, still ordering his meals and wine, as any other traveller would do, at the inns where he stopped, but directing his servant to take them away as soon as they were brought in, and to give what he himself did not eat and drink to the waiter. But on the continent he performed the greater part of his journeys in a German chaise, which he had purchased for the purpose, never stopping on the road but to change horses, until he came to the town he meant to visit; travelling, if necessary to the effecting his purpose, the whole of the day; and sleeping, from habit, as well in his vehicle as in a bed. He always carried with him a small brass tea-kettle, a tea-pot, some cups and saucers, a supply of green tea, a pot of sweatmeats, and a few of the best loaves of bread the country through which he passed could furnish. At the post-house he would get some boiling water, and where it was to be procured, some milk, and make his humble repast, while his man went to supply himself with more substantial food at the *auberge*."

The experience of Mr. Howard as to the best means of avoiding pestilential fevers is coincident with that of all sensible observers and writers on the subject. His preventives are as applicable to the cholera at this day, as they were to the typhus or jail fever of England, and the plague of Turkey and Egypt. "I have frequently been asked," says this distinguished philanthropist, "what precautions I use to preserve myself from infection in the prisons and hospitals which I visit. I here answer once for all, that next to the *free goodness* and *mercy* of the *Author of my being*, temperance and cleanliness are my preservatives. Trusting in *Divine Providence*, and believing myself in the way of my duty, I visit the most noxious cells, and while thus employed, '*I fear no evil.*' I never enter an hospital or prison before breakfast, and in an offensive room I seldom draw my breath deeply."

* The Memoirs of John Howard—Boston, 1830, 18mo. pp. 352.

A subject for Reflection.—Agreeably to a memorandum kept by the Rev. Dr. Cathcart, of York, Pa. it appears that *one hundred and nine murders* were committed in the United States, within the year 1831. Some of these were of the most appalling kind, such as parents by their children, children by their parents, husbands by their wives, and wives by their husbands, &c. A large proportion of them are regarded as the consequence of an intemperate use of ardent spirits.

In compliance with the request of the Select and Common Councils of the City of Philadelphia, the Board of Commissioners for erecting suitable buildings for the accommodation of the poor, herewith submit the statement desired, viz:

Cost of the farm, comprising 188 acres,	$51,716 94
Present cost of the two buildings, 500 feet in front each, by 66 feet in depth,	195,303 00
Cost of constructing a wharf on the Schuylkill, together with a road leading to the buildings,	4,517 00
Estimated cost to complete the present buildings, Alms House and Hospital,	85,000 00
Estimate cost of two other buildings which are intended as houses of employment, women's apartment, and children's asylum, and which are to be built in conformity with the present buildings,	215,000 00
	$551,536 94

By order of the Board,
N. Bunker, Secretary. E. W. KEYSER, President.

The Cabinet of Natural History and American Rural Sports, with illustrations. A monthly publication. Vol. II. No. I. Philadelphia, 1832. Published by the Brothers, Doughtys, No. 5 Library street. The first volume of the Cabinet, (300 pages quarto) has been completed. It forms, when bound, an ornamental book, to which one may instructively refer for much valuable information on natural history, and amusement in the sketches and anecdotes of sporting; while the numerous coloured engravings, twenty-six in number, together with others on steel, and wood cuts, give the volume a richness of aspect, which cannot fail to gratify every person of taste. The first number of the second volume is issued in a style commensurate, in all respects, with the character of the first volume. One cannot help falling in love with angling at the sight of the beautiful little engraving, after a drawing by Doughty, which ornaments the title page. The first of the engravings represents *Wild Horses*, and precedes an interesting account of these animals; the second is a picture of the *Great Horned Owl* just pouncing on a poor rabbit. To each and all of our readers we confidently recommend the Cabinet of Natural History.

NOTICE.

Whereas by assignment, bearing date the 14th of March, 1832, Henry H. Porter assigned all his estate and effects to the subscriber, in trust for the benefit of such creditors, (amongst others,) as shall make and execute a release within sixty days from and after the date of such assignment. Notice is hereby given to all persons indebted to the said Henry H. Porter, to make immediate payment to the subscriber, and creditors are invited to call at his Counting-house, No. 27 Minor street, where the release is ready for execution.

SHELDON POTTER, Assignee.

☞ *This Journal will be continued under the same editorial guidance as heretofore.*

JUDAH DOBSON, *No.* 108, *Chesnut-street*, Agent for the importation and purchase of Books, Periodicals, &c.

ROPER'S GYMNASIUM, *No.* 274, *Market-street.*

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Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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When adverting, in our thirteenth number, to the great political influence of the burghers of the free cities of Germany, Flanders, and Italy, by means of their various guilds, or companies of arts, and trades, we promised to call the attention of our readers and fellow citizens generally, to the subject, as one susceptible of salutary application to the wants and wishes of our own country and time. We then said that "in the United States, where every citizen is guarantied by the general and state constitutions, the full enjoyment of his rights, the political operation of trades and guilds is not so much called for." But we would now take occasion to remark, that for the promotion of useful charities, and feelings of active benevolence, as well as maintaining the social standing of their order, by diffusing accurate information among their members, not only on the rules of trade and mechanics, but on sound constitutional law, and elementary literature and science, they might do immense good. Still farther, they have it in their power to establish and encourage pastimes and sports, by which health would be preserved, and the mind and spirits kept in a tone of pleasurable excitement and cheerfulness, to which confinement in close rooms, and manufactories, in an uneasy and bent posture, with the eyes often strained on minute objects, is so unfavourable. Whatever institutions shall call into activity, and foster the better and kindlier feelings of our nature, are worthy of all com-

mendation and encouragement. Of this character are societies consisting of all the respectable members of the several trades and arts, who would be advisers, friends, and supporters, in seasons of distress, of those of their number who, from disease, or unforeseen accident and misfortunes, had been deprived of their usual means of living and of continuing their business. We are aware that this kind of support and assistance is promised, and, on occasions, given by beneficial societies; but they are too often limited and partial in their sphere of action and utility. It is of more importance to give a young man, just freed from his apprenticeship, elevated notions of the respectability of his calling, and of the worth and intelligence of the members of his trade, and to inspire him with a feeling of responsibility to them in their collective capacity, as a guild or company, for his correct habits and fair dealing, than if he were insured an income for seasons of reverse and sickness—because these latter evils might often be prevented by the habits of temperance, industry, and frugality, which he had acquired under the auspices and encouragement of his guild.

It would be easy for us to specify many advantages which would result from the associations now recommended. In a government like ours the people are presumed to speak always through our representatives in the state and general governments—and so for many, we may say most, of the purposes of national prosperity and character they do. But there are occasions when conflicting prejudices, opposite views and interests are to be discussed, and, if possible, reconciled, not by scholastic logic, nor by mere eloquence, or honied speech, but by legislation adapted to the actual necessities and wants of the class, for whose benefit and protection the law is to be made, or repealed. Now, obviously, the information necessary to form an opinion can be furnished but by the class in whose interest it is proposed to make a legislative enactment. If the merchants are consulted, or desire to address the government, it is through their chamber of commerce that the facts are transmitted, as by it they had been collected. Have the manufacturers a chamber or standing delegation—have the different trades and arts their companies, or guilds, by whom they can make their wants and condition calmly, correctly, and, therefore, authoritatively known? We believe they have not—and if they have not, legislation on their affairs must be more or less conjectural.

The joint funds of the companies of the traders and artizans might be in part appropriated to having, 1st, a convenient hall for meeting, as well as for holding the books, drawings, and apparatus, more immediately relating to the trade and to the mechanical power employed in it; 2d, a place for bodily recreation and amusement, in which different gymnastic exercises should

be gone through. They ought to be accessible to the apprentices and journeymen of all the members, who would, by this means, be kept from the contamination of evil company, and the indulgence in debasing, if not criminal, habits. Thus knit together by a community of business pursuits and amusing relaxations, masters, journeymen, and apprentices would cease to regard each other, as they too often do, with mistrust. Proud of their trade, each individual would aid in giving dignity and importance to the other members of it, as in so doing he would necessarily swell his own.

Provision might be made for affording pecuniary aid to an unfortunate member of the guild, if, on examination, it were found that he had conducted himself honourably, and that his misfortunes had not been of his own criminal creation. Capital might even be furnished, on loan, to those whose ingenuity and moral rectitude had been once advantageously displayed in more prosperous times.

It would be perfectly just and compatible with the equal rights of the masters, and their duty to apprentices, if the laws of the company required that a youth should have had, before indenture, the elements of learning; or if not, that a provision should be made for his obtaining them afterwards. We know that this is the common understanding at present between a master mechanic and the parents or guardian of an apprentice; but to give it full and practical effect would require the supervision of the whole trade directly interested in the respectability, and of course intelligence and good character, of those who shall afterwards recruit their ranks. Express stipulations should also be entered into, respecting the means of preserving his health, and guarding against the diseases to which the apprentice may be liable in his new trade. With this view, some of the more experienced and older members of the guild should, at stated times, inculcate, in brief and plain language, the necessity of attention to cleanliness, temperance, regular bodily exercise, and hours of sleep; at the same time that each member should be held responsible for the obedience to this advice on the part of his apprentices, and those under his roof.

In smaller towns and villages, in which the number of persons of the respective trades would be too small to form a separate company or guild, they might all unite to the support of a common hall, gymnasium, and library, and agree to be governed, in their intercourse with each other and their apprentices, by the rules sketched above. To a certain extent, this plan has been carried into effect in parts of the eastern states, by the establishment of Lyceums. But still the kind of paternal government and guidance, which would make the members of a trade as one great family, attentive primarily to its own reputation and in-

terests, without infringing on those of others, remain yet to be adopted. We shall close our remarks by a notice of the *Halls of the City* (London) *Companies*, from a "Picture of London," once our companion in that great metropolis:—

"There are in London no less than forty-nine magnificent halls belonging to various *guilds* or *incorporated Companies of Traders and Artizans, Citizens of London.* Many of these may be found interesting objects to strangers, either for their architecture, or their magnitude, and expression of opulence. Among the best are:—Ironmongers' Hall, in Fenchurch street; Merchant Taylors' Hall, in Threadneedle street; Goldsmiths' Hall, in Foster lane; Grocers' Hall, Grocers' Hall Court, Poultry; Skinners' and Tallow Chandlers' Halls, Dowgate Hill; Drapers' Hall, Throgmorton street; Mercers' Hall, Cheapside; Fishmongers' Hall, London Bridge; Stationers' Hall, Stationers' Court, Ludgate street; and Apothecaries' Hall, Blackfriars.

"These halls are erected for the management of the affairs of the Companies respectively; and are also used for feasts, on certain public days, and peculiar occasions. Many of the Companies are extremely rich, possessing clear annual revenues of 30, 40, and 50,000*l.* Among the most wealthy are the Mercers, Grocers, Drapers, Fishmongers, Goldsmiths, Skinners, Merchant Taylors, Haberdashers, and Ironmongers.

In all these halls are pictures more or less curious or excellent, many of them of great age or by eminent masters, and relics of interesting characters or events. Thus, for example, in Fishmongers' Hall, is still to be seen the very dagger with which Sir W. Walworth killed Wat Tyler; in Mercers' Hall, some reliques of Whittington, &c. &c.

"The Citizens of London, possessing an amiable feature in common with the bulk of their countrymen, never forget, in the midst of their abundance, the wants of others. The sums distributed annually to the indigent, by the City Companies, from various funds given for the purpose, amount to more than 26,000*l.* A few of them give respectively from 1000*l.* to 4000*l.* *per annum.*"

FEMALE ACCOMPLISHMENTS.

Of all cant in this most canting country, no species is at once more paltry and more dangerous than that which has been made the instrument of decrying female accomplishment. All that execrable twaddle about feminine retirement, and feminine ignorance, which we are doomed so often to hear, has done more towards making women scolds, and flirts, and scandal-mongers, than people are well aware of. All minds, whether of males or females, that are ignorant and empty, can only find delight and occupation in a small circle. "Exactly!" cries our canter; "in the household circle! What larger orbit would you have a woman busy herself in? Is not that her proper sphere?" Fiddledeedee! Does housekeeping—the suckling of fools and the chronicling of small-beer—take up all a lady's time? Is she never visiting her neighbours, and pulling her friends' characters to pieces? How can she do otherwise than talk scandal? What else can she talk of if she is ignorant? If she knows nothing about things, she must talk

about persons; if she cannot converse, she must gossip. The sole species of talk that cottagers have, for instance, is gossip. The same cause that makes poor women gossip, applies to rich women also—ignorance! Then as to feminine delicacy—what softens so much as knowledge? Does knowledge make men bad husbands? Why should it make women bad wives? And the most sad part of the business is, that women themselves should repeat and exult in all this insulting jargon; that they should be the chief persons always to talk of the blessings of not being well educated; of knowing only how to make puddings and tea; of having no talk but backbiting, and feeling no horror like that at a blue-stocking. All this is very pitiable. The soul of a woman is as fine an emanation from the Great Fountain of Spirit as that of a man. Why is she to paper it up as carefully as if it were made of silver lace, and the breath of Heaven would tarnish it? If there were any thing harsh, or unfeeling, or unmatronly, or unfeminine in being well informed, God knows we would not insist upon it. But if there be any truth in the world it is this; that as it was chiefly empty houses that evil spirits were supposed to haunt, so it is chiefly in empty minds that low passions and unworthy sentiments are to be found. Nothing is so tender as true wisdom, or so selfish as folly; and to instruct the mind is the best method wherewith to elevate the heart. The more fit a woman is to be our companion, the more likely she is to be our soother and our friend; and in proportion as she is worthy of our affection will she be capable herself of feeling the loftier and more lasting order of love.—*New Monthly Mag.*

A Hint to Bipeds.—Purity of vesture seems to be a principal precept of nature, and observable throughout creation. Fishes, from the nature of the element in which they reside, can contract but little impurity. Birds are unceasingly attentive to neatness and lustration of their plumage. All the slug race, though covered with slimy matter calculated to collect extraneous things, and reptiles, are perfectly free from soil. The fur and hair of beasts in a state of liberty and health is never filthy, or sullied with dirt. Some birds roll themselves in dust, and occasionally, particularly beasts, cover themselves with mire; but this is not from any liking or inclination for such things, but to free themselves from annoyances, or to prevent the bites of insects. Whether birds in preening, and beasts in dressing themselves, be directed by any instinctive faculty, we know not; but they evidently derive pleasure from the operation, and thus this feeling of enjoyment, even if the sole motive, becomes to them an essential source of comfort and of health.—*Journal of a Naturalist.*

THE RETURN TO NATURE.*

The author of this work has been too anxious to make a book. In his defence of vegetable regimen, he has not been very attentive to excluding extraneous and irrelevant matter. Prose and poetry in Greek and Latin, fable and tradition, are introduced, to support a position which needs no such aids. With the use of vegetable, to the entire exclusion of animal matter, the author insists on the necessity of making distilled water the beverage. He is hardly less forcible in his denunciations of bad water, than are some bacchanalian poetasters and anti-temperance editors; but then, his remedy for the evil is totally different from theirs. He recommends the water to be distilled; they are in favour of mixing with it ardent spirits. He is for purifying—they for adding a noxious liquor to that already deemed unwholesome. The following reasoning and illustrations, will serve to convey to our readers a good idea of the work—perhaps a more favourable one than would be derived from a perusal of his numerous extracts from writers on all subjects, without any attempt at method or arrangement.

"It has been often said of vegetable diet, that it is not so strengthening as animal food, and I will readily grant that the latter imparts a temporary increase of strength: so likewise does the rage of a madman, though his is, perhaps, the highest state of diseased action; but that vigour and energy which are the prelude to ulterior mischief had better never have existed. The man whom Sir Edward Berry prevailed upon to live on partridges alone, and who was obliged, after the first week, to desist on account of the appearance of symptoms of putrefaction, might probably during that week, in which he was approaching fast towards death, have been conscious of an accession of strength. But let me ask, are not the lower orders of Irish, who live on potatoes and butter-milk, as strong as any race of men in Europe? They are vigorous even to a proverb. If they are not entirely as long-lived or as healthy as they might be, which is I suppose the fact, it is because they neither abstain from spirits nor common water; and even with these disadvantages, if a man remarkable for the largeness of his limbs be exhibited in London, it is ten to one that he comes from the sister kingdom. We find in Ulloa's book on South America, that men may be abundantly sustained on vegetables. He tells us that the instances are common, on that continent, of persons in good health at a hundred years of age, and not rare, at a hundred and thirty or forty. The habits of the Spaniards are very different from our own. Those who have penetrated into Spain, have probably witnessed to what a distance a Spanish attendant will ac-

* Or a Defence of the Vegetable Regimen.

company, on foot, a traveller's mule or carriage; not less than forty or fifty miles a day, raw onions and bread being his only fare. This observation is offered with that view to moderation which the writer has endeavoured never to lose sight of, in the statements contained in this little treatise. There are those who will be aware that still stronger facts, entirely to his present purpose, might have been adduced, relatively to more distant parts of the world, as well as to Spain. He will content himself with barely naming La Peyrouse, Molina, and Humboldt; for if he were to enter fully into all the details which press upon him, in the consideration of this extensive subject, he would produce a large book; the evil he is most anxious to avoid. These travellers, who are always consulted with new pleasure, agree in remarking the prodigious change which is effected in nations, simply by the introduction of domestic animals."

PUBLIC BATHS.

If our worshipful legislators were less of politicians, the republic would be a great gainer. The people, whom they profess to worship, are treated very much like the idols of paganism; they are addressed in language of adoration, accompanied with sundry obeisances; but for all substantial purposes, they are presumed to be blind to the artifices and selfishness of the priests ministering in the temple. Local and partial considerations—the petty prejudices of a few—the advancement of friends and dependents, too often outweigh what is really called for by the public weal. Pending elections, we hear much of "sound republicanism!" "genuine democracy!" "the people's rights!" "the dignity of the people!" "economy," &c. &c., from the same men, who, in the legislative hall, will sanction measures, the direct tendency of which, is to degrade the people, to destroy republicanism, by encouraging drunkenness and its concomitants, vice and debauchery. We need not go farther for the illustration of this than the "oyster cellar bill," passed by our legislature last winter. Of the neglect of means for promoting the true happiness and dignity of the people, we have further proofs, in the want of provisions for preserving the health, by the erection and support of public baths, and the establishment of gymnasia, in which citizens of all ages and classes should have space and apparatus for every variety of exercise. No encouragement is given to the formation of public libraries, and for inducing the young men of the different trades and arts to prefer the Lyceum or reading room, to the oyster cellar or the tippling shop. Munificent builders of penitentiaries and alms-houses, our legislators are scarcely less prodigal in the facilities which they

furnish to the people, for obtaining a lodging in these abodes of crime and poverty. We leave to our readers at large, the application, on this side of the Atlantic, of the following language of an English writer.

"The inhabitants of the South sea isles go into the water twice a day, and wash themselves from head to foot. How much more pleasing is it to contemplate this habit of cleanliness, than if we allow the imagination to glance upon the filthy consequences of personal neglect which is by much too prevalent; neglect of which many would be ashamed were it not for the protection they insidiously derive from their covering. This reminds me of a question which a lady, eminent for her acquirements, but rather too careless of her person, put to me one day, on my observing that it was doubtful whether men need drink at all. "And pray, sir, what do you conceive that water was intended for by the Creator?" The reply was obvious. "For a purpose, madam, to which I have often had to regret that it was not more industriously applied." To be serious, it is a deep disgrace on this flourishing kingdom, with its annual expenditure of nearly a hundred millions sterling, that in such a city as London, having a great command of water, there should be no such thing as a public bath. What must be the apartments, and their contents, from which those dirty people daily issue, whom one passes hastily, even in the open streets, to avoid being unpleasantly assailed. Were I Chancellor of the Exchequer, I assuredly would not rest until I saw these things put into a train of being on a very different footing."

MUSHROOMS.

Nearly all the writers on the subject of cholera, who have witnessed this epidemic in the north of Europe, include mushrooms among those articles of diet, the use of which endangers an attack of the disease. There can be no doubt, indeed, that under all circumstances, mushrooms are injurious to the stomach. It is somewhat remarkable, that they should ever have been introduced upon our tables as an article of luxury, when the vegetable kingdom affords, independent of them, so great a variety of substances, equal, certainly, in flavour, and superior in appearance; and which, besides affording a greater amount of nutriment, are less liable to produce those deleterious effects which so frequently result from the use of mushrooms. The celebrated Parmentier considers them merely as condiments. He declares them to be incapable of being digested, and devoid of nutritive properties. It is, at least, certain, that if they do possess the latter, it is to a very small extent. It is well known, that very few of the mushroom tribe are at all eatable; many are

perfectly insipid, others decidedly poisonous. They are all so, no doubt, to a certain extent, when taken in large quantities, and for a considerable length of time. Many of them act upon the brain almost in the same manner as ardent spirits, and are actually employed in Russia and other parts of northern Europe, to produce intoxication. It is from the whole class in this manner exciting in the brain a greater or less degree of stimulation, that they were probably first introduced into use, and are still so highly prized as a condiment. Although we are told that the esculent mushroom is perfectly innocent, yet it is confessed on all hands, to be often very difficult to distinguish it by its external appearance, from those which are deleterious; and that when the former is gathered at too late a period after it has sprung up, its juices possess a degree of acrimony. It must be evident, therefore, that the use of mushrooms is, to say the least, always unsafe.

It appears that most fungi or mushrooms, which have a warty cap, more especially fragments of membrane adhering to their upper surface, are poisonous. Of those which grow in woods and shady places, a few are esculent; but most are unwholesome; and if they are moist on the surface, they should be avoided. All those which grow in tufts or clusters from the stumps or trunks of trees, ought likewise to be shunned. A sure test of a poisonous mushroom, is an astringent styptic taste; and perhaps, also, a disagreeable, but certainly a pungent odour. Those whose substance becomes blue soon after being cut, are represented as invariably poisonous.

When mushrooms prove deleterious, as they often do, if eaten without a very great deal of caution, they occasion a sense of qualmishness, or violent sickness, succeeded by giddiness, palpitation of the heart, and a flushing heat, with more or less redness of the skin. Swelling of the face also occurs, and sometimes a sensation over the whole body, as if a general swelling had taken place. The individual stares in an unusual manner; all objects appear different from what they did previously; a difficulty of breathing ensues, and the mind becomes strangely confused. Delirium and convulsions, are likewise of frequent occurrence. In other cases, where the symptoms are mild, and do not appear for several hours after the mushrooms have been eaten, the sickness terminates in *cholera morbus;* on the cessation of which, the patient generally falls into a sound sleep, or into a somewhat comatose condition.

To relieve the foregoing symptoms as speedily as possible, the stomach should be freed, by an emetic, of its noxious contents; after which, the patient should drink freely of water strongly impregnated with either vinegar or lemon juice.

A striking circumstance in respect to the symptoms of poison-

ing with the fungi, is the great difference in the interval which elapses, between the time of eating, and that of their commencement. In some cases, their deleterious effects have been displayed in a few minutes; in others, in a day and a half. An interval of twelve hours is common.

COOKERY.

Notwithstanding the cravings of ill regulated and depraved taste have converted the cook, too often, into man's enemy, yet it must be admitted that simple cookery is a highly useful art—by it, our food being rendered more palatable and digestible, and better adapted to support the strength and health of our bodies. The preparation of food in this manner, is peculiar to man; all other animals partaking of it as presented by the hand of nature. Simple cookery consists in little else than the application, in various ways, of heat, to the nutritive substances; and the addition of a small quantity of salt or pepper, with the view of heightening their flavour; all beyond this, is of doubtful propriety.

Vegetables.—Vegetable differs from animal substances, in being more frequently used as food in a raw state; and in this state they may often be eaten without injury. General consent, however, has preferred the greater number of them being altered by heat; and the advantages which result from the application of the latter, are, their being rendered more soluble in the stomach, and the acrimonious qualities of certain of them being destroyed. Most vegetables are prepared for food, in their fresh and most recent state, and the application of heat is made to them either by steam, or by simply boiling. The first is preferable in all cases where the vegetables are of a succulent or watery nature; and by this means their colour is also more fully preserved. The latter, or boiling, is to be preferred, when the vegetable is of a dry, mealy, or farinaceous nature; and the proper rule in conducting the process is, to carry it so far as to reduce the substance to its softest state. In boiling vegetables, particularly the firm and dense kinds, it is a very common error to boil them too little.

Animal food.—Few kinds of animal food are used in their natural or raw state, if we except some of the shell fish. They all require to be kept for some time after being killed, to allow the fibres to lose, in some degree, their firmness and tension, or they will not become tender when cooked. This is particularly the case with the flesh of old animals, and that which possesses but little fat. But it should never be kept so long as to allow putrefaction to take place, or its wholesomeness as well as its nu-

tritive properties, will be destroyed. Heat is applied to animal food, either in a humid or dry form. The first includes boiling and stewing; the latter, roasting, broiling, baking, and frying. Moderate boiling renders the food more soluble in the stomach, without, if it be properly performed, destroying, to any extent, its nutritious qualities. Excessive boiling, however, impairs its digestibility, and renders it less nutritive. The fluid in which the meat is boiled, extracts from it every thing capable of solution, and reduces it to an insipid, dense mass, unfit for food. By converting the water in which meat has been well boiled, into soup, by the addition of vegetables, we obtain at once an economical and nutritive aliment. Boiling is better adapted to the flesh of old than of young animals. Meat cooked in this way, is, upon the whole, less digestible and nutritious, than that prepared by either roasting or broiling. It is an error, therefore, to suppose it better adapted to weak stomachs.

Roasting.—This is an admirable method of rendering meat wholesome and nourishing; as, without greatly changing its chemical properties, it renders it more tender, sapid, and high flavoured, while there is not so great a loss of its nutritive juices as in baking, boiling, and some other processes. It is, however, rendered more stimulating than by the process of boiling. The perfection of roasting, consists in doing the meat, neither too slowly, so as to dry it up, nor so rapidly as to burn it.

Broiling—is a still better mode of dressing animal food. Meat cooked in this manner is equally soluble, while it retains a greater amount of its nutritive principles, than that which has been either boiled or roasted. It is hence more juicy and sapid, and, generally speaking, to a healthy stomach, more wholesome. For restoring the strength of the invalid, if not commenced with too early, it is the best mode in which animal food can be dressed. It is highly nutritive, without being too stimulating; and the juices having undergone but little change, they are quickly converted, without any undue effort on the part of the stomach, into good chyle, and healthy blood. It is proper to remark, in regard to both roasted and broiled meat, that the external brown crust is the less digestible part, and should be eaten only by those in vigorous health.

Stewing—consists in a more moderate application of heat than in boiling; and in continuing the application of it, also, for a much longer period. Although it is not a mode of cookery which is to be preferred to either of the two last, yet the texture of the meat being rendered by it sufficiently tender, without an entire extraction of its soluble parts, it may be allowed as an occasional change; though food cooked in this manner is less easy of digestion than that which has been properly boiled, yet it is equally nourishing; particularly, as the fluid in which the stew-

ing is performed, which contains a considerable amount of the animal extract, is generally taken with the meat.

Baking—is a mode of cookery far inferior to either of the foregoing. It differs from roasting, inasmuch as the watery parts of the meat are retained. There is a retention, also, to a greater extent, of the oleaginous juices of the meat, which are generally in a burnt empyreumatic state; and render the food thus cooked highly irritating to the stomach, as well as less digestible and nutritious. With proper care, however, baking may be so conducted as to render the meat thus cooked little inferior, in any point of view, to that which has been roasted.

Frying—is the least proper of all the simple methods of cookery. The fat in which it is performed being burned in the process, forms on the outside of the meat, a hard, dry, and totally indigestible crust. Fried meat is of so indigestible and irritative a nature, as to disorder the stomachs of all who are not in the enjoyment of uncommon health and vigour. Heart burn, acrid eructations, sick head-ache, disturbed sleep, and other uneasy sensations often result from its use by the weak and delicate.

HOMICIDE AND SUICIDE.*

There are two cases, one of probable homicide, the other of probable suicide, which, as they engaged the attention of all England at the several periods of their occurrence, we cannot quit this subject without noticing. We allude to the deaths of the Earl of Essex, and Sellis, the servant of the Duke of Cumberland. The nobleman was easily exonerated from the charge of self-destruction, because public opinion ran strongly in his favour; because it is equally hostile to the Prince, dark suspicions are still entertained by many ignorant and well-meaning persons, in defiance of evidence irresistibly demonstrating their absurdity. We shall give both cases without comment.

The Earl of Essex, committed to the Tower in July, 1683, on a charge of high treason, was found in his closet, a few days after, with his throat cut. The jury (who, by the way, on desiring to see the clothes, were told, that on the body not the clothes, they were to sit,) gave their verdict, "That with a razor the Earl of Essex gave himself one mortal wound, cut from one jugular to the other, and *by the aspera arteria*, and the windpipe to the vertebræ of the neck, both the jugulars being thoroughly divided, and of this he died." Burnet, in endeavouring to prove the suicide, directly contradicts this. "Both the jugulars and gullet were cut," says he, "*a little above the aspera arteria;* and when his body was brought home to his own house, and the wound was examined by his own surgeon, he told me it was impossible the wound could be as it was, if given by any other hand but his own: for except he had cast his head back, and stretched up his neck all he could, *the aspera arteria must have been cut.*" The reader, with ourselves, will incline rather to believe the jury than the bishop, and it may be observed that cutting the gullet *above* the aspera arteria is nearly impossible. Several skilful members of the faculty, on examination before the Lords' committee, stated,

* The Law Magazine.

"that they would not positively say it was impossible for my Lord to cut his throat through each jugular vein, the aspera arteria, and gullet to the neck bone, and even behind each jugular vein on each side of the neck, as some judicious surgeons who viewed the throat, had reported it to be cut; but this they would be very positive in, viz. that they never saw any man's throat so cut, that had been cut by himself; and they did believe that when any man had cut through one of his jugular veins, and the gullet and windpipe, and to the very neck-bone, nature would be thereby so much weakened by the great effusions of blood and animal spirits, that the felo-de-se would not have strength sufficient to cut through the other jugular." Further, it may be mentioned, that there was no blood higher than the floor of the closet in which the body lay, although only three feet two inches wide; the razor was of such shape, that it must have been held by the blade, which much increases the difficulty of inflicting so large a wound. It lay on the left side, although Lord Essex was right-handed; and two witnesses swore that his cravat was cut in three pieces, and that there were five cuts on his right hand.

The evidence of Sir Everard Home, indicating that Sellis committed suicide after attempting the life of the Duke of Cumberland, has been frequently before the public. We give it in his own words. "I visited the Duke upon his being wounded, and found my way from the great hall to his apartment by the traces of blood which were left on the passages and staircase. I found him on the bed, still bleeding, his shirt deluged with blood, and the coloured drapery above the pillows sprinkled with blood from a wounded artery, which puts on an appearance that cannot be mistaken by those who have seen it. This could not have happened, had not the head been lying on the pillow when it was wounded. The night ribbon which was wadded, the cap, scalp, and scull, were obliquely divided, so that the pulsations of the arteries of the brain could be distinguished. While dressing these wounds, a report came that Sellis was dead; I went to his apartment, found the body lying on his side on the bed, without the coat or neckloth—the throat cut so effectually, that he could not have survived a minute or two. The length and direction of the wound was such as left no doubt of its being given by his own hand; any struggle would have made it irregular. He had not even changed his position—his hands lay as they do in a person who has fainted; they had no marks of violence upon them—his coat hung upon a chair out of the reach of blood from the bed—the sleeve from the wrist to the shoulder was sprinkled with blood quite dry, evidently from a wounded artery, and from such kind of sprinkling the arm of the assassin of the Duke of Cumberland could not escape." Unless, says Dr. Gordon Smith, the *veracity* of this statement be impeached, what can be more conclusive than the inferences that naturally present themselves? This question ought, indeed, to be set at rest by Sir E. Home's declaration; and an admirable lesson is thus furnished on the importance of medical investigation in cases of difficulty and doubt.

ATTENDANCE OUGHT NOT TO BE GRATUITOUS.*

Heu, mihi! me malus abstulit error—amor pecuniæ.

The daily occupation of the medical man is at once the work of public humanity, and of personal profit. His task and duty is to do good, to stand by the sick, to cheer the conscious sufferer from vicious indulgence, and to administer solace to the mind, and ease to the body. In the day of battle, the medical man endeavours to save the life of the soldier; and when

* We copy this article, with some slight verbal alterations, chiefly in the person speaking, from the London Medical Gazette.

a national pestilence is abroad, the medical man is chiefly exposed to the pest while watching and learning its nature and its treatment. He is always engaged in the work of charity, because he gains his daily bread by being charitable.

A false notion is now afloat concerning the humanity of medical men. While a disease is threatening to infest our capital, public authorities are wisely convened to forestal and prevent its ravages among the dark and dirty dwellings of the poor; and the poorer people are cleansed and cheered according to the active and diligent instructions of their alarmed superiors. A general feeling of humanity is produced and enforced by private apprehensions. Sobriety, one of the first of Christian virtues, is now proclaimed, not by the voice of wisdom, but by the shout of calamity. In the discharge of this novel duty, the medical man is called upon to take his part; but his part is to be discharged, not in anticipating the arrival of the disease, but in meeting it when it is arrived. He is to hold himself in readiness to rise by night and by day, to enter the houses of the poor, to detect, to touch, to handle, and to treat a loathsome sickness, and to lean over the bed, or to tarry by its side, till safety or death shall have ensued. If there be any contagion or infection, he is exposed to its baneful influence; if there be any hazard of health, he is open to the obvious danger. We doubt not the moral energy and the professional avidity of any medical practitioner, in the encountering of a new disease; the eagerness with which the zealous physician would hasten, any hour, to survey, perchance to understand and to cure, a spreading evil, fatal to the lives of men; but no man is justified in wantonly exposing his person to mischief; and every master of a family is bound to consider those who depend upon him for support. The danger may be adventured upon, but only with the prospect of a fair remuneration; and those authorities which require the medical man to serve for nothing, dictate an act of humanity to be practised only according to the feelings and the means of the individual dictated to. A medical man's time and judgment are purchaseable articles; and they are, like bread and meat, to be purchased in all seasons, both of prosperity and of national adversity; since humanity is exhibited, not by acting for nothing, but in doing to the utmost what is right and proper, in the hope of a legitimate reward. They who do less than this, are inimical to themselves and to the common weal; for how shall society be held together, if mutual advantages be not considered? The medical man must support himself by his labour, and he will soon cease to be able to act gratuitously, if his labour do not supply him with the means to live.

But suppose there be no danger of infection, and that the disease were curable by a touch, nevertheless that touch, and that exertion, without hazard, is still worthy of a just reward. So that, if the poor are to be attended gratuitously, let the medical man act for himself, as he frequently does act, without ostentation, by giving, if he choose, his advice and his medicine as a free gift, merely with the hope of doing good.

Money he desires for himself, indeed, but more for those who live by his exertions. Money is the source of subsistence. The days are gone when we might pluck, and live with ease and pleasure, from the tree of life; and in civilized communities, a man will be arrested for nudity, if he have not money to clothe himself withal. The profit to be expected from an extension of name and reputation, is remote and uncertain; and that policy is truly fallacious, which places the well-being of an individual or a nation not in an immediate, but in a prospective good; since who can foresee or control the adverse rise of intermediate circumstances?

Having advanced the principle upon which the physician, as a man, expects the just remuneration of his services, he is not ashamed to say with Horace—"*quærenda pecunia primum est.*" Never will an honest member of our profession allow his ear to be deaf, nor his eye blind to the sight and

the sound of genuine poverty; nor will he spare his best exertions to alleviate the afflictions of the unfortunate, the wretched, and the debased; the knot of his purse can be loosed to give as well as to receive; and he would blush, indeed, if his hands were not sometimes open to bestow as well as to accept. He has learned, from the practice of his profession, the pleasure of doing good; and he only demands for his exertions, especially public exertions, those pecuniary supplies which may still enable him to practice and to study his science, to support his family, to benefit his friends, and to give to all those who in the hour of need, he knows will be relieved and comforted by the silent gift of benevolence.

LICENSES TO OYSTER CELLARS.

It will be seen, from the following extract, that the Grand Jury for the city of Philadelphia, have, in their inquest to the Mayor's Court, protested against the iniquitous law for licensing oyster cellars to retail ardent spirits.

To the Mayor's Court.

The Grand Inquest inquiring for the city of Philadelphia, respectfully represent:

That in the discharge of their duties during the present term, they have with much pleasure observed a sensible diminution of such cases as usually have their origin in those sinks of vice, tippling houses; this they attribute in a great measure to the effects produced by the different acts of the Legislature hitherto passed with a design to limit the number of taverns, and to confine licenses to such only as necessity absolutely requires. The Inquest cannot, however, withhold the expression of their deep regret at the manifest evidence they have discovered of the pernicious consequences likely to result from the granting of licenses to oyster cellars, and thereby in effect legalizing an extensive source of vice; they are satisfied that the Legislature would not have passed the act referred to, had they been fully acquainted with the wishes of the citizens regarding it, and distinctly appreciated the practical mischief to the youth of the city that will inevitably follow. Circumstances coming under the notice of the Inquest during the present term, fully justify the alarming apprehensions of the community concerning this matter; they therefore earnestly hope that this important subject, particularly as it affects the rising generation, may again arrest the serious attention of the Legislature, and that in their wisdom they may see meet to alter the law, which to this Inquest appears to be of paramount importance.

The senator, who thought himself safe in slandering the Temperance Society, under the supposition that its doctrines were not popular with the people, and that from its numbers it could not exert any controling influence at an election, will find that he has mistaken the feelings of the citizens of Philadelphia. His misrepresentations of the time and manner of holding the town meeting, to protest against the obnoxious law, are now signally exposed; and he will, we fervently hope, find it less difficult than heretofore to ascertain public opinion in Philadelphia, a point at which he professes himself to be always greatly puzzled. The most clear and decisive manner for their expressing their wishes to the next Legislature, respecting the legalized encouragement of drunkenness, will be for the citizens of the city and county of Philadelphia, (for they have a common interest in this mat-

ter,) to allow the representatives who have betrayed their trust to stay at home. The members from this *city* and county, ought to have at least asked for time to obtain information, had they been ignorant of the pernicious consequences of the proposed law. In mere party measures they are wide awake; why should they be asleep when the morals and happiness of the entire community are at stake!

"Monthly American Journal of Geology and Natural Science, &c. &c. Conducted by G. W. Featherstonhaugh, Esq. Fellow of the Geological Society of London; Member of the American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia, &c. &c. March, 1832. Published by the Editor. Subscriptions received at Mr. Judah Dobson's, 108 Chesnut street.—Price $3 50, payable in advance."—We are pleased to see that the zealous editor of this work is determined, despite the culpable mismanagement of the former publisher, H. H. Porter, to continue it, and to finish the first volume at his own expense. The public will, we trust, reciprocate, in a becoming spirit, the desire of Mr. Featherstonhaugh to do them full justice, in completing an engagement which not he, but the publisher, had contracted with them. Happily for the cause of science and letters, other motives than the hopes of lucre are constantly impelling their votaries to extend their domain, and to multiply their useful and pleasurable applications.

The present number of the Journal of Geology, delayed in its publication by the causes adverted to above, will be found, on perusal, to be fully as entertaining and instructive as any preceding one. The description of the Natural Bridge, in Rockingham county, Virginia, obtains additional interest and value by a beautifully executed lithographic print of that sublime object, second only to the Falls of Niagara in the feelings of admiration and awe, which it excites in the mind of the traveller, gazing on it for the first time. The first article of this number is geological—being, *On the constituent Minerals, and the structure of the Primary Rocks.* This is followed by a paper *on the comparative Encouragement given to the study of Natural History in Europe and North America.* A Philadelphian will rise from its perusal with feelings of allowable pride at the contribution of his city towards furthering the progress of science. A letter from the celebrated Audubon to the Editor, contains a *melange* of personal adventure, and details in natural history, which that writer is so felicitous in introducing.

THE HEALTH ALMANAC FOR 1833.

Key, Mielke and Biddle will soon have ready for the trade, the *Health Almanac* for 1833. This work will be, as heretofore, under the direction of the *Editors of the Journal of Health*, by whom the maxims and rules for the preservation of health will be furnished.

The Editors would observe that the substitution of other publishers for H. H. Porter, is a measure called for, not merely by the failure, but by the gross misconduct of this individual, whose name will, in future, be any thing but a passport to public favour and patronage.

NOTICE.

Whereas by assignment, bearing date the 14th of March, 1832, Henry H. Porter assigned all his estate and effects to the subscriber, in trust for the benefit of such creditors, (amongst others,) as shall make and execute a release within sixty days from and after the date of such assignment. Notice is hereby given to all persons indebted to the said Henry H. Porter, to make immediate payment to the subscriber, and creditors are invited to call at his Counting-house, No. 27 Minor street, where the release is ready for execution.

SHELDON POTTER, Assignee.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, April 25, 1832. No. 16.

The interest which flowers have excited in the breast of man from the earliest ages to the present day, has never been confined to any particular class of society, or quarter of the globe. Nature seems to have distributed them over the whole world to serve as a medicine to the mind—to give cheerfulness to the earth, and to furnish agreeable sensations to its inhabitants. The savage of the forest, in the joy of his heart, binds his brow with the native flowers of his woods, whilst a taste for their cultivation increases in every country in proportion as the blessings of civilization extend. From the humblest cottage enclosure to the most extensive park and grounds, nothing more conspicuously bespeaks the good taste of the possessor than a well cultivated flower garden: and it may very generally be remarked, that when we behold a humble tenement surrounded with ornamental plants, the possessor is a man of correct habits, and possesses domestic comforts; whilst, on the contrary, a neglected weed-grown garden, or its total absence, marks the indolence, and unhappy state of those who have been thus neglectful of Flora's favours.

Of all luxurious indulgences, that of flowers is the most innocent. It is productive not only of rational gratification, but of many advantages of a permanent character. Love for a garden has a powerful influence in attaching men to their homes; and on this account every encouragement given to increase a

taste for ornamental gardening is an additional security for domestic comfort and happiness. It is likewise a recreation which conduces materially to health, promotes civilization, and softens the manners and tempers of men. It creates a love for the study of nature, which leads to a contemplation of the mysterious wonders that are displayed in the vegetable world around us, and which cannot be investigated without inclining the mind towards a just estimate of religion, and a knowledge of the narrow limits of our intelligence, when compared with the incomprehensible power and wisdom of the Creator.

Flowers are, of all embellishments, the most beautiful; and of all created beings, man alone seems capable of deriving enjoyment from them. The love for them commences with infancy, remains the delight of youth, increases with our years, and becomes the quiet amusement of our declining days. The infant can no sooner walk than its first employment is to plant a flower in the earth, removing it ten times in an hour to wherever the sun seems to shine most favourably. The school boy, in the care of his little plot of ground, relieves the tedium of his studies, and loses the anxious thoughts of the home he has left. In manhood our attention is generally demanded by more active duties, or by more imperious, and perhaps less innocent, occupations; but as age obliges us to retire from public life, the love of flowers, and the delights of a garden, return to soothe the later period of our life.

To most persons, gardening affords delight as an easy and agreeable occupation; and the flowers they so fondly rear, are cherished, from the gratification they afford to the organs of sight and of smell; but to the close observer of nature, and the botanist, beauties are unfolded, and wonders displayed that cannot be detected by the careless attention bestowed upon them by the multitude. In their growth, from the first tender shoots which rise from the earth through all the changes which they undergo to the period of their utmost perfection, he beholds the wonderful works of creative power; he views the bud as it swells, and looks into the expanded blossom, delights in its rich tints and fragrant smell, but, above all, he feels a charm in contemplating movements and regulations before which all the combined ingenuity of man dwindles into nothingness.

FREE SCHOOLS.

When noticing, some little time back, the will of the late Stephen Girard, and his legacies to the city, we entered most into a detail of the description of the edifice which he directs to be built for a college. We took occasion also to praise the plan of

its construction for durability, and as in accordance with correct hygiene. It may not be amiss to give his instructions in respect to the conditions under which orphans, for whom the institution is intended, shall be received, before we note, as is our intention agreeably to a former promise, foundations of a similar benevolent nature abroad.

"When," says Mr. Girard in his will, "the college and appurtenances shall have been constructed, and supplied with plain and suitable furniture and books, philosophical and experimental instruments and apparatus, and all other matters needful to carry my general design into execution; the income, issues and profits of so much of the said sum of two millions of dollars as shall remain unexpended, shall be applied to maintain the said college according to my directions.

1. The institution shall be organized as soon as practicable; and to accomplish that purpose more effectually, due public notice of the intended opening of the college shall be given—so that there may be an opportunity to make selections of competent instructors, and other agents, and those who may have the charge of orphans, may be aware of the provisions intended for them.

2. A competent number of instructors, teachers, assistants, and other necessary agents, shall be selected, and when needful, their places from time to time supplied: they shall receive adequate compensation for their services: but no person shall be employed, who shall not be of tried skill in his or her proper department, of established moral character, and in all cases persons shall be chosen on account of their merit, and not through favour or intrigue.

3. As many poor white male orphans, between the ages of six and ten years, as the said income shall be adequate to maintain, shall be introduced into the college as soon as possible; and from time to time as there may be vacancies, or as increased ability from income may warrant, others shall be introduced.

4. On the application for admission, an accurate statement shall be taken in a book, prepared for the purpose, of the name, birth-place, age, health, condition as to relatives, and other particulars useful to be known of each orphan.

5. No orphan should be admitted until the guardians or directors of the poor, or a proper guardian or other competent authority, shall have given, by indenture, relinquishment, or otherwise, adequate power to the Mayor, Aldermen, and Citizens of Philadelphia, or to directors, or others by them appointed, to enforce, in relation to each orphan, every proper restraint, and to prevent relatives or others from interfering with, or withdrawing such orphan from the institution.

6. Those orphans, for whose admission application shall first be made, shall be first introduced, all other things concurring—and at all future times, priority of application shall entitle the applicant to preference in admission, all other things concurring; but if there shall be at any time, more applicants than vacancies, and the applying orphans shall have been born in different places, a preference shall be given—*first*, to orphans born in the city of Philadelphia; *secondly*, to those born in any other part of Pennsylvania; *thirdly*, to those born in the city of New York (that being the first port on the continent of North America at which I arrived;) and *lastly*, to those born in the city of New Orleans, being the first port on the said continent at which I first traded, in the first instance as first officer, and subsequently as master and part owner of a vessel and cargo.

7. The orphans admitted into the college, shall be there fed with plain

but wholesome food, clothed with plain but decent apparel, (no distinctive dress ever to be worn) and lodged in a plain but safe manner: Due regard shall be paid to their health, and to this end their persons and clothes shall be kept clean, and they shall have suitable and rational exercise and recreation: They shall be instructed in the various branches of a sound education, comprehending reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, geography, navigation, surveying, practical mathematics, astronomy, natural, chemical, and experimental philosophy, the French and Spanish languages, (I do not forbid, but I do not recommend the Greek and Latin languages)—and such other learning and science as the capacities of the several scholars may merit or warrant: I would have them taught facts and things, rather than words or signs: And, especially, I desire, that by every proper means, a pure attachment to our republican institutions, and to the sacred rights of conscience, as guaranteed by our happy constitutions, shall be formed and fostered in the minds of the scholars.

8. Should it unfortunately happen, that any of the orphans, admitted into the college, shall, from mal-conduct, have become unfit companions for the rest, and mild means of reformation prove abortive, they should no longer remain therein.

9. Those scholars, who shall merit it, shall remain in the college until they shall respectively arrive at between fourteen and eighteen years of age; they shall then be bound out by the Mayor, Aldermen, and Citizens of Philadelphia, or under their direction, to suitable occupations, as those of agriculture, navigation, arts, mechanical trades, and manufactures, according to the capacities and acquirements of the scholars respectively, consulting, as far as prudence shall justify it, the inclinations of the several scholars, as to the occupation, art, or trade, to be learned."

Time has fully tested the utility of schools in which the orphans and children of the poor receive the elements of a liberal education. Thousands who have become worthy, and many of them distinguished members of society, have been sent out into the world from these free schools, supported by the legacies of rich and benevolent individuals. Of this kind are *Herriot's*, *Watson's*, *The Merchants' Maiden*, *The Trades' Maiden*, and *Gillespie's* Hospitals in Edinburgh; *The Charter House*, and *Christ's* Hospital in London, &c.

Herriot's Hospital owes its foundation to George Herriot, goldsmith to James VI. The building was begun in 1628, according to a plan, (as is reported,) of Inigo Jones; but the work being interrupted by the civil wars, was not finished till the year 1650. The expense is said to have been upwards of thirty thousand pounds, (money then but ten per cent. interest;) and the hospital is now possessed of an improveable income of upwards of £8000 sterling a year, which is rapidly increasing.

This edifice is a square of 160 feet without, having a court of 94 feet square in the inside, with piazzas on two of the sides. There is a spire, with a clock, over the gateway, and each corner of the building is ornamented with turrets; but, notwithstanding the magnificent appearance of the outside, the inside is far from being convenient. There is a statue of the founder over the gateway, in the dress of the times, and a very good painting of him in the council-room, with a picture of the late treasurers, Messrs.

Carmichael and Jackson. There is a fine Gothic chapel, 61 feet long, and 22 broad, which is now repaired in such a manner as to make it worthy the attention of strangers. When Cromwell took possession of Edinburgh after the battle of Dunbar, he quartered his sick and wounded soldiers in this hospital. It was applied to the same purpose till the year 1658, when General Monk, at the request of the governors, removed the soldiers; and on the 11th of April, 1659, it was opened for the reception of boys, 30 of whom were admitted into it. The August after, they were increased to 40, and in 1661 to 52. In 1753 the number was raised to 130, and in 1763 to 140; at present they amount to 180. The testator, as expressed in his will, left the magistrates of Edinburgh £23,625 10*s.* for the maintenance, relief, and bringing up so many poor and fatherless boys, freemen's sons of the town of Edinburgh. In this hospital, the boys are instructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and a knowledge of the Latin tongue. With such as follow any kind of trade, an apprentice-fee of £50 is now given when they leave the hospital; and those who choose an academical education, have an annuity of £10 a year bestowed on them for four years. The whole is under the oversight of the treasurer, who has under him a house-governor, house-keeper, and school-masters.

Watson's Hospital has its name from its founder, George Watson, who was clerk to Sir William Dick, Provost of Edinburgh in 1676. Dying a bachelor in 1723, he left £12,000 for the maintenance and education of the children and grand-children of decayed members of the merchant company of Edinburgh. The scheme, however, was not put in execution till the year 1738, when the sum originally left had accumulated to £20,000. The present building was then erected, in which above 60 boys are maintained and educated. It is much less magnificent than Herriot's Hospital, but the building is far from being despicable. It stands to the southward of the city, at a small distance from Herriot's Hospital, and was erected at an expense of £5000; its present revenue is betwixt £2000 and 3000 a year. It is under the management of the master, assistants, and treasurer of the Merchant Company, four old bailies, the old dean of guild, and the two ministers of the Old Church. The boys are genteelly clothed, and liberally educated. Such as choose an university education are allowed £10 per annum for five years: those who go to trades have £20 allowed them for their apprentice fee; and at the age of twenty-five years, if they have behaved properly, and not contracted marriage without consent of the governors, they receive a bounty of £50. The boys are under the immediate inspection of the treasurer, school-masters, and house-keeper.

" *The Merchants' Maiden Hospital* was established in the year 1695, by voluntary contribution, for the maintenance of young girls, daughters of merchants burgesses of Edinburgh. The governors were erected in a body corporate, by act of Parliament, in 1707. The annual revenue amounts to above £2000. Eighty girls are maintained in it, who, upon leaving the house, receive £3 8*s.* 6*d.* and £6 from profits of work. The four girls ad-

mitted on Mr. Erskine of Marr's presentation receive each £8 6*s.* 8*d.*, besides profits on work;—or £14 6*s.* 8*d.*"

The old hospital has been replaced by a fine classical edifice, in a more convenient situation. It is 180 feet long, by 70 feet in breadth, and 50 in height, with four fluted pillars in front, supporting a handsome pediment over the entrance.

"*The Traders' Maiden Hospital* was founded in the year 1704, by the incorporations of Edinburgh, for the maintenance of the daughters of decayed members, on a plan similar to that of the Merchants' Hospital. To this, as well as the former, one Mrs. Mary Erskine, a widow gentlewoman, contributed so liberally, that she was by the governors styled *joint foundress* of the hospital. Fifty girls are maintained in the house, who pay of entry money £1 13*s.* 4*d.*; and when they leave it, receive a bounty of £5 11*s.* 1½*d.* The revenues are estimated at £650 a-year."

"*Gillespie's Hospital* owes its erection to the beneficence of the late Mr. James Gillespie of Spylaw, who having amassed a considerable fortune, (acquired by an extensive trade in the articles of *snuff* and *tobacco*,) and having no near relation, bequeathed, by a deed dated the 16th of April, 1796, the greater part of his property for the purpose of founding and endowing an hospital for old men and women, and a free school, for the instruction of 100 poor boys in reading, writing, and arithmetic. The governors of this hospital were incorporated by a royal charter, dated the 19th of April, 1801; and in that year the present building was begun.

"The title of admission to the hospital is,—good behaviour, and poverty, with no allowance from any charity; fifty-five years of age, and upwards. Preferred as follows: 1st, persons who have been Mr. Gillespie's hired servants; 2d, persons of the name of Gillespie; 3d, persons belonging to Edinburgh and its suburbs; 4th, persons belonging to Leith, and other parts of the county of Mid-Lothian; Lastly, persons belonging to any part of Scotland.

"The title of admission to the school is, poverty, boys not under six, nor above twelve years of age. No limitations as to residence."

Among the institutions the most extensively useful in London, is Christ's Hospital, the origin of which is thus told in a work now before us:—

"This hospital originated in the following manner: The convent of the Grey's-friars, on the site of which it rose, being surrendered to Henry VIII. that monarch, a little before his death, founded Christ's-church Hospital, granting the monastery to the City for the relief of the poor. Other lands were granted to the City for the same purpose by Henry. But the object being neglected, Edward VI. at the instance of Ridley, Bishop of London, sent a letter to the Lord Mayor, inviting his assistance in relieving the poor; and, shortly afterwards, a regular system of relief for the metropolis was formed, of which this hospital made one principal part. The poor were distinguished by classes. St. Bartholomew's and St. Thomas's Hospitals were

destined to relieve the *diseased;* Bridewell to maintain and correct the *idle;* and Christ's Hospital to maintain and educate the *young* and *helpless;* and the King incorporated the governors of the several hospitals by the title of *The Mayor, Commonalty, and Citizens of the City of London, Governors of the Possessions, Revenues, and Goods, of the Hospitals of Edward VI. King of England.*

"This monarch also granted Christ's Hospital, lands to the yearly value of £600 belonging to the Savoy, and added other benefactions, the last being his license to take lands in mortmain, to the value yearly of 4000 marks.

"In 1552, the house of the Grey-friars was first prepared for the reception of the children; and in November, in the same year, nearly 400 were admitted.

"Charles II. founded a mathematical school in this house for forty boys, to which he granted £1000 per annum, payable out of the exchequer for seven years. Of these boys, ten are yearly put out apprentices to the sea-service, and in their places ten more received on the foundation.

"Another mathematical school, for thirty-seven other boys, was afterwards founded by Mr. Travers; but these boys are not obliged to go to sea.

"There are at present about 1200 children on this foundation. The boys wear a very ancient dress: it consists of a blue cloth coat, close to the body, having loose skirts of the same; yellow under coats, and yellow worsted stockings, and a flat, round, worsted, black bonnet, with the hair cut short. Their fare is plain and wholesome; they sleep in wards, kept in a very cleanly state.

"The governors have established a school at Hertford, to which they send the younger part of the children, generally to the number of 500; who are taken into the house, as room is made by apprenticing the elder. All the girls are educated at this school.

"The education given to the boys of this hospital is excellent of its kind, consisting chiefly of writing and arithmetic, fitting them for merchants' counting-houses or trades. One boy is sent annually to Cambridge, being properly educated for the church; and every seven years one is sent to Oxford. This is one of those institutions which do good in the best way to the country.

"The permanent revenues of Christ's Hospital are great, arising from royal and private donations in houses and lands; but, without voluntary subscriptions, are inadequate to the present establishment.

"By the grant of the City, the governors licence the carts allowed to ply in the City, to the number of 420, who pay a small sum for the licence; they also receive a duty of about three farthings upon every piece of cloth brought to Blackwell Hall, granted by acts of Common Council.

"The expenditure of this Hospital is immense, being at present about £30,000 per annum, of which about £1300 is paid in salaries to the officers and servants of the foundation.

"The governors, who choose their own officers and servants, male and female, are unlimited in their number, being usually benefactors of the hospi-

tal, or persons of considerable importance, associated with the Lord Mayor and Citizens, Governors by the charter. A donation of £400 makes a Governor: formerly the sum was less; but the office of Governor being one of the greatest trust, and of great importance in its effects to the public, enlarging the sum was wisely adopted.

"The Governors of Christ's Hospital have been made trustees to several other extensive charities, by their founders. Amongst the rest, is one of £10 a year each, for life, to 400 blind men. This ought to be made known, because these funds have been often confounded with those of Christ's Hospital, which they do not in the least augment, the Governors not being at liberty to apply those new funds to any of the uses of the Hospital."

The Charter House merits next our notice.

"This benevolent institution is situated at the top of Charter House Lane, Smithfield. It was formerly a priory for monks of the Carthusian order; but, in the year 1611, it was converted, by Thomas Sutton, Esq. into a magnificent hospital, consisting of a master, a preacher, a head school-master, and a second master, with forty-four boys, and eighty decayed gentlemen, who had been merchants or military men. The boys are instructed in classical learning; and the pensioners are allowed £14 *per annum*, besides a gown, provisions, fire, and lodging. This foundation also supports twenty-nine students at the Universities.

"The priory was alienated by the rapacious Earl of Suffolk, for thirteen thousand pounds, to Mr. Sutton, who made the above dignified use of his purchase. In one of the great apartments is a full length portrait of this good man. He was descended from a good family in the county of Lincoln, and became an eminent London merchant in the reign of Elizabeth. Great as his wealth was, he was more distinguished by his integrity, generosity, and true charity, than by his riches, which were all gained by fair trade, by honourable posts under government, and even by deeds of arms. In a letter of marque he took a Spanish prize, worth twenty thousand pounds. He commanded the bark called the Sutton, as a volunteer against the Spanish armada. In years of scarcity he bought corn, in great quantities, and caused it to be retailed at low prices to his poor neighbours. Besides the purchase money, and the expense of fitting up the premises, for the reception of his pensioners and scholars, he endowed the hospital and school with fifteen manors, and other lands, to the value, at that time, of more than four thousand four hundred and ninety pounds per annum, which charitable and noble rental is at present greatly increased. He died in December, 1611, aged 79; his body was embalmed, and kept in his own house till the following May, when it was deposited with great pomp in Christ Church, whence it was again removed, on the shoulders of the poor, to the chapel in his own hospital, which was then finished. His figure, in a gown, lies recumbent on his tomb; on each side is a man in armour erect, and above, a preacher, addressing a full congregation."

TRAINING.

It is amazing what pains men will take in training a horse which is destined for the race, or in increasing the health, vigour, and strength of their own bodies when about to engage in a pugilistic contest for the amusement, as it is strangely termed,

of a brutal audience. The rules which are adopted on such occasions are in the highest degree judicious, and most scrupulously observed. And yet, notwithstanding the well known fact that, during this process of training, both beast and man become, in reality, much more powerful—acquire increased agility and perfection in all their movements, and astonishingly improve in health; the same plan has never been followed up as means of benefitting the system, and rendering it better adapted to fulfil the ordinary duties of life. No:—men exhibit so little consistency in their actions, that while they acknowledge the importance of temperance, exercise, pure air, and regular repose, and are willing to profit by them when they have in view objects of inferior importance, or of a demoralizing tendency, yet when the same means are urged upon them for the attainment of health, or to increase their daily comforts, and, as rational beings, their usefulness, they are rejected with a sneer; as though they were really only fit for the inmates of the menage, or the heroes of the ring. As the process of training, in relation to the human body, will be found to confirm all the general precepts which the editors of this journal have given for the improvement of health, and avoidance of disease—in other words, as it will be found to comprise a short and practical system of hygiene, we propose, in the present and succeeding numbers, to present to our readers an outline of the manner in which the process is conducted. Our details are derived from Captain Barclay's celebrated work, and the Pugilist's Manual. We may premise, that when a course of training is commenced, not the slightest deviation from the rules to be observed is permitted—day and night, and continually, until the object in view is effected, they must be strictly conformed to.

Solid food.—The diet of persons under training is always extremely simple, consisting almost exclusively of wholesome animal food, stale bread or biscuit, and nutritious vegetables of easy digestion. Veal and pork are entirely prohibited, and lamb is but seldom allowed. Beef, mutton, and venison are the chief meats in training. They are always eaten fresh: when salted they become less ready of digestion, and create thirst. Fat meats are to be avoided, as they disorder the stomach, and are longer in digestion; the lean of fat meat is nevertheless preferred to any other. For a change, fowl, rabbit or partridge plainly dressed, is allowed once a week. No fish whatever is permitted to be eaten, from the inferior degree of nutriment which it possesses, and its being very apt to irritate and disorder the stomach. Cheese is never allowed, and but very little butter—generally, it is dispensed with. When the body has been found to be considerably improved, and the muscular strength increased, eggs, very slightly boiled, are permitted to be taken,

but not more than one or two in the day. A small quantity of turnip, French beans, or potatoe, are allowed after three or four weeks of training, and when the strength of the digestive organs has been increased; if, however, they are found to occasion the slightest inconvenience, they are instantly laid aside. New bread is never given. Biscuit is, in most instances, preferred even to stale bread. Pies, and puddings, and every species of pastry, are entirely banished from the table of an individual who is under training. The only seasoning allowed is salt and vinegar, but in very moderate quantities. Every thing which has a tendency to increase thirst is cautiously, and very properly, avoided. In regard to the mode of cooking the animal food which is eaten, broiling is preferred to either roasting or boiling, by both of which latter, as we stated on a recent occasion, the nutritive quality of the meat is impaired. Care is always taken not to have the meat too much done. The quanity of solid food allowed is very moderate. It differs, however, in some measure, according to the age, strength, and digestive powers of the individual. The minimum rather than the maximum quantity demanded for the support of the the utmost strength and vigour of the system, is always endeavoured to be observed. All the rules in regard to the times of eating are equally judicious; they are, principally, never to partake of food immediately before or after active exercise, and to avoid at all times exceeding, at any one meal, the demands of the appetite.

THE PUNISHMENT OF DEATH.

"THE CONDEMNED SERMON."

To the moralist and jurist, not less than to the physician, the following graphic account of the scene in Newgate on the Sunday preceding the execution of the condemned criminals, will be full of interest. It is by Mr. Wakefield, who was himself an inmate of that prison for some time, in virtue of a sentence passed on him for the abduction, a few years ago, of the rich heiress, Miss Turner.

He has just been speaking of the difference in the behaviour, and evidence of religious impressions among those who have received sentence of death. He continues his narrative as follows:—

"But I may add, that on almost every execution day on which several are hanged, the chaplain is subjected to the most outrageous insults from one or more of the doomed men. He will readily confirm this statement. And it may be further proper to say, for the information of religious persons, amongst those who make our laws, that every year several of their fellow-creatures are cut off in front of Newgate in the very act of scoffing at God, and Christ,

and the Holy Sacrament. Let us return to the condemned pew, supposing it to contain four persons ordered for execution. Tho rest of the congregation, I have said already, pray for the condemned during each morning's service; but on the Sunday preceding the execution, there is a grand ceremony, usually called 'the condemned sermon,' when, besides the sermon, which is of course made for the occasion, appropriate hymns are sung—such as 'the lamentation of a sinner;' and if the execution be to take place next day, part of the burial service is performed. The condemned service is conducted with peculiar solemnity, being attended by the sheriffs in their great gold chains, and is in other ways calculated to make a strong impression on the minds of the congregation, who may be considered as representing the criminals of the metropolis. Whether the impression be a good or a bad one, I leave the reader to decide: but in order that he may have the necessary materials for deciding justly, I lay before him the following description of a condemned sermon, premising only this—that not a circumstance is stated which I have not witnessed. The sheriffs are already seated in their own pew, accompanied by their under-sheriffs, and two friends drawn thither by curiosity. Not far from them appear two tall footmen, swelling with pride at their state liveries. The ordinary is at his desk: his surplice is evidently fresh from the mangle; and those who see him every day, observe an air of peculiar solemnity, and perhaps of importance, in his face and manner. The clerk is busied searching out the psalms proper for the occasion. The tragedy then begins. Enter, first, the schoolmaster and his pupils: then the prisoners for trial; next the transports, among whom are the late companions of the condemned men; and then the women. Lastly, come the condemned: they are four in number. The first is a youth, about eighteen apparently. He is to die for stealing in a dwelling-house, goods valued at more than 5*l*. His features have no felonious cast;—on the contrary, they are handsome, intelligent, and even pleasing. Craft, and fear, and debauchery, have not yet had time to put decided marks on him. He steps boldly, with his head upright, looks to the women's gallery, and smiles. His intention is to pass for a brave fellow with those who have brought him to this untimely end; but the attempt fails—fear is stronger to him than vanity. Suddenly his head droops; and, as he sits down, his bent knees tremble and knock together. The second is an older criminal, on whose countenance villain is distinctly written. He has been sentenced to death before, but reprieved, and transported for life. Having incurred the penalty of death by the act, in itself innocent, of returning to England, he is now about to die for a burglary committed since his return. His glance at the sheriffs and the ordinary tells of scorn and defiance. But even this hardened ruffian will wince at the most trying moment, as we shall see presently. The third is a sheep-stealer, a poor ignorant creature, in whose case there are mitigating points, but who is to be hanged in consequence of some report having reached the ear of the secretary of state that this is not his first offence; and, secondly, because, of late, a good many sheep have been stolen by other people. He is quite content to die;—indeed, the exertions of the chaplain and others have brought him firmly to believe that his situation is enviable, and that the gates of heaven are open to receive him. Now observe the fourth—that miserable old man in a tattered suit of black: he is already half dead. He is said to be a clergyman of the church of England (Rev. Peter Fenn,) and has been convicted of forgery. The great efforts made to save his life, not only by his friends, but by many utter strangers, fed him with hope until his doom was sealed. He is now under the influence of despair. He staggers toward the pew, reels into it, stumbles forward, flings himself on the ground, and, by a curious twist of the spine, buries his head under his body. The sheriffs shudder; their inquisitive friends crane forward; the keeper frowns on the excited congregation; the lately smirking

footmen close their eyes and forget their liveries; the ordinary clasps his hands; the turnkeys cry 'hush;' and the old clerk lifts up his cracked voice, saying, 'Let us sing to the praise and glory of God.' People of London! is there any scene in any play so striking as this tragedy of real life, which is acted eight times a year in the midst of your serene homes? They sing the Morning Hymn, which, of course, reminds the condemned of their prospects for to-morrow morning. Eight o'clock to-morrow morning is to be their last moment. They come to the burial service. The youth, who, alone of those for whom it is intended, is both able and willing to read, is, from want of practice, at a loss to find the place in his prayer-book. The ordinary observes him, looks to the sheriffs, and says aloud, 'the service for the dead!' The youth's hands tremble as they hold the book upside-down. The burglar is heard to mutter an angry oath. The sheep-stealer smiles, and, extending his hands upwards, looks with a glad expression to the roof of the chapel. The forger has never moved. Let us pass on. All have sung 'the lamentation of a sinner,' and have seemed to pray, 'especially for those now awaiting the awful execution of the law.' We come to the sermon. The ordinary of Newgate is an orthodox unaffected church of England divine, who preaches plain homely discourses, as fit as any religious discourse can be fit for the irritated audience. The sermon of this day, whether eloquent or plain, useful or useless, must produce a striking effect at the moment of its delivery. The text, without another word, is enough to raise the wildest passions of the audience, already fretted by an exhibition of gross injustice. and by the contradiction involved in the conjunction of religion with the taking away of lives. 'The sacrifices of God are a broken heart: a broken and contrite heart, O God! thou wilt not despise.' For a while the preacher addresses himself to the congregation at large who listen attentively—excepting the clergyman and the burglar, of whom the former is still rolled up, at the bottom of the condemned pew, whilst the eyes of the latter are wandering round the chapel, and one of them is occasionally winking, imprudently, at some acquaintance among the prisoners for trial. At length the ordinary pauses; and then, in a deep tone, which, though hardly above a whisper, is audible to all, says—'Now to you my poor fellow-mortals, who are about to suffer the last penalty of the law.' But why should I repeat the whole? It is enough to say, that in the same solemn tone he talks for about ten minutes of crime, punishment, bonds, shame, ignominy, sorrow, sufferings, wretchedness, pangs, childless parents, widows and helpless orphans, broken and contrite hearts, and death to-morrow morning for the benefit of society. What happens? The dying men are dreadfully agitated. The young stealer in a dwelling-house no longer has the least pretence to bravery. He grasps the back of the pew; his legs give way; he utters a faint groan and sinks on the floor. Why does no one stir to help him? Where would be the use? The hardened burglar moves not, nor does he speak; but his face is of an ashy paleness; and, if you look carefully, you may see blood trickling from his lip, which he has bitten unconsciously, or from rage, or to rouse his fainting courage. The poor sheep-stealer is in a frensy. He throws his hands far from him, and shouts aloud —'Mercy, good Lord! mercy is all that I ask! The Lord in his mercy come! There! there! I see the Lamb of God! Oh! how happy! Oh! this is happy!' Meanwhile the clergyman, still bent in the form of a sleeping dog, struggles violently; his feet, legs, hands, and arms, even the muscles of his back, move with a quick, jerking motion, not naturally, but, as it were, like the affected part of a galvanised corpse. Suddenly he utters a short sharp scream, and all is still. The silence is short. As the ordinary proceeds 'to conclude,' the women set up a yell, which is mixed with a rustling noise, occasioned by the removal of those whose hysterics have ended in fainting. The sheriffs cover their faces; and one of their inquisitive

friends blows his nose with his glove. The keeper tries to appear unmoved; but his eye wanders anxiously over the combustible assembly. The children round the communion table stare and gape with childish wonder. The two masses of prisoners for trial undulate and slightly murmur; while the capital convicts, who were lately in that black pew, appear faint with emotion. This exhibition lasts for some minutes, and then the congregation disperses; the condemned returning to the cells; the forger carried by turnkeys; the youth sobbing aloud convulsively, as a passionate child; the burglar muttering curses and savage expressions of defiance: whilst the poor sheep-stealer shakes hands with the turnkeys, whistles merrily, and points upwards with madness in his look.—Of what use are the religious ceremonies in which persons about to be hanged are made to play a part? The question should not give offence to the most religious, since it applies only to the *ceremonies*. These, it would appear, are of no peculiar service to the condemned—that is, all the good which he derives from religion might be bestowed on him without any public ceremonies. The object, then, of the religious ceremonies in which he shares, is to make a useful impression on the other inmates of the prison. Is this object effected?"

AN EFFECTUAL CURE FOR THE CHOLERA.

The following is an extract from a letter, dated Vienna, August 9:—

"The communication which I herewith enclose, ought to be made public in every quarter of Great Britain, for it details the easiest and most effectual mode of treatment, under attacks of the cholera, which has been hitherto proposed or practised:—

"The Jews of Weizniz have been eminently judicious in their treatment of the cholera; for in that town, out of two hundred and forty individuals who have been attacked by it, every one of them has been saved, with the exception of two persons who refused to submit to it. As one of the members appointed to conduct the sanitary establishment, I was an eye-witness to the treatment observed, and have already saved the lives of my three servants, who were attacked, by adopting it. The several points of the remedy are these following:—

"Take a pint of strong spirits of wine, and half a pint of good white wine vinegar, add to them one ounce of powdered camphor, one ounce of flour of mustard, or bruised mustard-seed, a quarter of an ounce of good pepper, and a full tea spoonful of bruised garlick; and lastly, half an ounce of powdered cantharides. Mix them well together in a bottle, and expose the mixture for twelve hours in the sun, or otherwise place it in some warm spot, taking care to shake it repeatedly.

"As soon as a person is attacked, let him instantly be put to bed, under warm coverlids, and let his hands and feet be rubbed powerfully and uninterruptedly with the lotion, after it has been warmed. During this operation, let the patient take a glass of strong drink, composed of two parts of chamomile flowers, and one part of balm mint.

"Persevere in this course, and at the end of fifteen minutes, at the utmost (the patient's head and body being kept well covered beneath the bedclothes) he will break out into a profuse perspiration.

"The patient must be kept in this state between two and three hours, but care must be taken that he does not fall asleep. After this, remove the extra covering from off the bed, and he will drop into a slumber, which will last between six and eight hours, and be accompanied with a gentle perspiration.

"When he awakes, he will find himself weak, but the disease will have

entirely left him, and he will require nothing further but rest and a moderate diet to restore him to perfect health.

"Especial attention must be paid, that the patient, after the operation of rubbing, does not so much as lift a finger above the clothes; for the slightest chill, whilst the perspiration is upon him, would be his death.

"When the cramps in the stomach come on, we apply very hot dry bandages of bran and ashes to the pit of the stomach, and when necessary, a bladder of hot water to the region of the navel.

"The great point is to produce strong perspiration, and to restore the circulation of the blood, which, at the beginning of the attack, is drawn from the surface of the body, and thrown with frightful virulence on its inward parts. Signed) "RIVER,
"Commissioner of the District of Bochnia."

We do not vouch for the success of the above mentioned treatment; but we present it the more willingly to our readers as pointing out that which, by the almost unanimous testimony of physicians, who have seen the disease, is most urgently required and most safely had recourse to—we mean warmth and frictions to the skin.

PUDDINGS FOR INVALIDS.

All farinaceous sweet puddings, as of macaroni, Italian paste, rice, ground rice, &c. are to be prepared much in the same way; and, with a little practice and attention to the following remarks, a variety of very nice light puddings can be easily made in great perfection for delicate stomachs.

Whatever farinaceous substance is selected for a pudding, should be boiled *quite tender* in milk, and the quantity of milk must depend on the nature of that substance; for, when so boiled, it must not be too thin; but, on the contrary, of a good consistence, so that the eggs may just set it, and give it firmness enough to stand without breaking when turned out of the mould. These sort of puddings for invalids cannot be made too delicate; therefore, when the substance about to be employed, becomes tender by boiling, if it happens to be too thin, it must remain near the fire until a portion of the liquid is evaporated or boiled away; but if too thick, it can easily be remedied by adding a little more milk or cream. Puddings of this kind require to be well steamed for about one hour, or a quarter more, according to the size; and it is necessary to bear in mind that, whether the pudding is steamed or baked, it should never be taken from the stew-pan or oven until within two or three minutes before wanted to be sent to table.

With regard to the quantity of sugar to be used, this must be guided by circumstances, as some like a pudding sweet, others not so; and, like flavours, it entirely depends on taste. I have of late completely succeeded in preparing, in convenient bottles, several kinds of *souffles*, or pudding sugars, which contain the flavours of *lemon*, *cinnamon*, *orange flower*, *vanilla*, &c., and I find that they are much approved for their convenience in flavouring all kinds of puddings, &c., and also for the facility with which they can be used on the plate at table.

Tapioca Pudding.—Tapioca is an article that, when properly prepared, makes a very excellent, light, and delicious pudding; but although apparently easy to be procured in great abundance, seems rarely to be employed for the purpose. I am induced, therefore, to give a method for using it, fully confident of the wholesome and nutritious qualities it possesses, and its advantages to invalids.

Take the peel of half a lemon pared very thin, a little loaf sugar, and

cinnamon, and a quart of new milk; put them into a stew-pan, set it on the fire, and the instant the ingredients boil, throw in three or four ounces of good and clean picked tapioca; allow the whole to simmer *very gently* by the side of the fire, until the tapioca is quite soft and thoroughly done; then take out the lemon peel and cinnamon with a spoon.

Break two eggs into a basin, and add the yolks of three or four more, beat them well together, and then mix with the milk and tapioca, put the whole into a well-buttered pudding-mould, cover over with a piece of buttered paper, and set it to steam in a large stew-pan, with as little water as possible, for one hour; on removing it from the stew-pan, allow it to stand two or three minutes before it is turned out on the dish.

This sort of pudding can be made richer, and much finer, by substituting one half or a quarter of cream for milk, and adding a piece of fresh butter, at the same time as the eggs; and it can be rendered of a variety of flavours, by substituting *vanilla*, *orange flowers*, and other flavouring substances, for lemon or cinnamon. These puddings can also be baked in a similar manner to rice, if so preferred.

Vermicelli Pudding—Is to be made by boiling three or four ounces of *true* vermicelli in a pint and a half of new milk, nicely flavoured, as for tapioca pudding; for as vermicelli requires less simmering than tapioca, less milk will consequently suffice, otherwise it is to be proceeded with exactly in a similar manner as the above.

Esculapius and St. Stephen's.—Original ideas are rare now-a-days, but certainly a recently defunct Magazine may boast of having put forth one very original indeed. In an elaborate Essay on Huskisson, it is gravely stated, that an attendance on medical lectures, and "a course of medical studies, is the best possible preparation" for a Prime Minister. What a host of sucking politicians are, according to these principles, learning physic and patriotism at the London University! what embryo senators are walking St. George's Hospital! The Tories, we suppose, will rise from the elegant auspices of Sir Henry Halford; the Whigs from that practical operator, Sir Astley Cooper. Abernethy, who proposes to make the lean fat by starvation, will be studied by the disciples of Mr. Hume. From Boerhaave to Bentham will be but a step, and Peel, Macaulay, &c. sink into nothing before the "rising talent" of Apothecaries' Hall.

Benefit Societies.—The Middlesex magistrates have come to a decision opposed to that of the most experienced practical men, on the points whether members of Benefit Societies are entitled, under the 10th Geo. IV. c. 56, sec. 1, to the allowance-money in case of fire—when imprisoned for debt—when reduced to a workhouse, and for providing a substitute to serve in the militia. The magistrates have decided that members *are* entitled to the allowance, whereas Mr. W. Morgan, actuary of the Equitable Assurance Company; Mr. John Finlayson, actuary of the National Debt; Mr. Joseph Milne, actuary of the Sun Life Office; Mr. Griffith Davies, actuary of the Guardian Assurance Company; and Mr. C. Ansell, actuary of the Atlas Assurance Company, have all given their opinion most explicitly, that members *are not* entitled to the allowance under any of these circumstances, according to the statute.

Savings' Bank.—J. T. Pratt, Esq. the barrister-at-law, appointed by Government to certify the rules of savings'-banks, has just published a list of all

the savings'-banks in England, Wales, and Ireland, which contains some highly useful information relative to these societies, which have produced so much good among the more humble classes. At the end of the year 1830, there were 412,217 depositors, being an increase in the year of 12,682, the average of whose deposits amounted to 32*l.* each. The total quantity of investments on Nov. 30, 1830, amounted to no less a sum than 14,366,667*l.*

Report of the Committee on Foreign Affairs "on the subject of the disease known as Indian or Asiatic Cholera," pp. 53.—We are indebted to our Mayor, B. W. Richards, Esq. and to the Hon. Joel B. Sutherland, for copies of this report, elicited by a memorial of the Board of Health of New York. It may be remembered that this body suggested that 'Congress should, without delay, constitute a sanitary commission, whose duty it should be either to send some of their own members, or others, to the parts of Europe and Asia where the disease now prevails, and to collect all the facts relating to the means of preventing, and remedies to be applied to it.' The committee think that "the necessity for inquiry abroad would seem precluded by the commissions to which the memorial refers, set on foot by nearly all the important European powers under circumstances more favourable to an instructive result than could belong to any inquiries instituted from this country. The information collected in these authoritative sources will be of easy resort, if not public notoriety; and procurable, with more advantage, through the diplomatic and consular agencies of the government, diffused generally, than by the organ of a special commission." The question of quarantine being one closely connected with the interests of commerce, the committee ask to be discharged from the further consideration of the memorial, and that the same be referred to the committee on commerce. The documents, appended to the report, are nearly the same as those communicated to the British government respecting the cholera, and ordered, by the House of Commons, to be printed. The chief facts relating to the disease, and precautions for avoiding it, contained in these documents, have been already placed before our readers in former numbers of this journal.

Population of Great Britain.—The population returns have been just printed by order of Parliament.—From the summary of this document we find that the population of England was, in 1801, 8,331,434, in 1811, 9,538,827; being an increase of 14½ per cent. In 1821, 11,261,437, being an increase of 17½ per cent.; and in 1831, 13,089,338—an increase of 16 per cent. The increase within the last thirty years has been 4,757,904. The summary of the annual value of real property in England was £49,744,622; in Wales, £2,153,801; and in Scotland, £6,662,655, making a total of £58,551,801. The population of Wales stands thus: in 1801, 541,546; in 1811, 611,788; in 1821, 717,438; and in 1831, 805,236. That of Scotland as follows: in 1801, 1,599,068; in 1811, 1,805,688; in 1821, 2,093,456; and in 1831, 2,365,806. The summary of Great Britain is as follows: In 1801, 10,942,646; in 1811, 12,609,864, being an increase of 15½ per cent.; in 1821, 14,391,631, being an increase of 14 per cent.; and in 1831, 16,547,398, an increase of 15 per cent. In 1801, the number of females in great Britain was 5,402,356; in 1811, 6,269,650, an increase of 14-15 per cent.; in 1821, 7,254,613, an increase of 15-71 per cent.; and in 1831, 8,365,780, an increase of 15-45 per cent. The population of London (that is the metropolis) was in 1801, 846,845; in 1811, 1,009,546; in 1821, 1,225,694; and in 1831, 1,474,069; males, 684,441; females, 789,628.

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THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, May 9, 1832. No. 17.

We are now in the month of May—the month of flowers and of promise, so celebrated in song, and on the first day of which, once devoted to sports and pastimes, the fields were traversed by gay and happy groups, and the woods resounded with the laugh and the ready jest. Thus was May ushered in by our English ancestors. Now, the sylvan games of the season are exchanged for, or rather have been supplanted by, city amusements—the flowers of the garden and the field have given way to those made by the milliner and *artiste coiffeur*—the songs of birds are made subjects for the songs of the opera, and to trip it on the light fantastic toe on the green-sward is downright vulgarity to those who are all eyes when a Vestris, a Paul, or a Taglioni is figuring away in the ballet.

Albeit some of his words are obsolete, others antiquated, Chaucer, the oldest of the English bards, may well be listened to when he pictures forth the charms of May—

"The busy lark, the messenger of day,
Saleweth* in her song the morrow gray;
And fiery Phœbus riseth up so bright,
That all the orient laugheth of the sight;
And with his strèmes drieth in the greves †
The silver droppès hanging in the leaves;
And Arcite, that is in the court real ‡
With Theseus the squier principal,
Is risen, and looketh on the merry day;
And for to do his observance to May,

* Saluteth. † Groves. ‡ Royal.

Remembring on the point of his desire,
He on the courser, startling as the fire,
Is risen to the fieldès him to play,
Out of the court, were it a mile or tway:
And to the grove, of which that I you told,
By aventure his way he gan to hold,
To maken him a garland of the greves,
Were it of woodbind or of hawthorn leaves;
And loud he sung against the sunny sheen—
'O May, with all thy flowers and thy green,
Right welcome be thou, fairè freshè May:
I hope that I some green here getten may.'
And from his courser, with a lusty heart,
Into the grove full hastily he start,
And in a path he roamed up and down."

The author of a pamphlet, entitled 'The Way to Things by Words, and Words by Things,' informs us, that our ancestors held an anniversary assembly on May-day, and that the column of May (whence our May-pole) was the great standard of justice on the Ey-commons or fields of May. Here it was that the people, if they saw cause, deposed or punished their governors, their barons, and their kings. The judge's bough, or wand, now discontinued, and only represented by a trifling nosegay, and the staff or rod of authority in the civil and the military power (for it was the mace of civil power and the truncheon of the field-officers,) are both derived from hence. A mayor, he says, received his name from this May, in the sense of lawful power; the crown, a symbol of dignity like the mace and sceptre, was taken from the garland or crown hung at the top of the May; the arches which sprung from the circlet, and met together at the maund, or round bell, being necessarily so formed to suspend it from the top of the pole.

'The Mayings,' say Strutt, in his Sports and Pastimes, published so lately as 1801, 'are in some sort yet kept up by the milkmaids of London, who go about the streets with their garlands and music, dancing;' but even this faint shadow of the original sports has subsequently faded away, so that the green glories and flowery festivities of May-day only survive, if the grim show may not rather be deemed a posthumous and spectral pageant, in the Saturnalia of the chimney-sweeping imps, who, with daubed visages, and bedizened in tinsel trumpery, hop around a faded Jack-in-the-green, to the dissonant clatter of their shovels and brushes. Sad and sooty spectacle! Art thou indeed all that is left to us of the pristine May-day glories, and the merry pipe and tabor, and the blithe dances of the young men and damsels around the garlanded May-pole? It is even so; we can now only send our thoughts into the green woods, and go a Maying with our memories.

OPPOSING NATURE.

NATURE has wisely implanted in the child an almost constant desire for active and even boisterous amusements, and every attempt to restrain its indulgence within too narrow limits, is attended with serious injury to the health and comfort of the little being, the effects of which not unfrequently continue to be felt throughout life. As society advances in refinement, it is too much the practice to subject, even from the cradle, both mind and body to artificial restraints. The indications of nature are overlooked or opposed; the proper exercise and development of the physical powers prevented, while every exertion is made to induce, at an early period, a display of those personal and intellectual acquirements which pass current in fashionable society. Anxious to forestal the age of reason and reflection, to annihilate, as it were, the period of childhood, parents not only curtail their offspring of much real, because innocent, enjoyment, but lay the foundation for many maladies, physical and mental, by which the usefulness and the pleasures of after life are sadly curtailed. Substituting their own short-sighted cleverness for the instinctive demands of active frames, the restless curiosity, and the generous enterprize of youth, they must have every thing graduated according to the opinions and requirements of a limited circle; thus capriciously restraining the beneficial activity which gives grace and strength to every limb; and misdirecting that spontaneous willingness which "loves whate'er it looks upon," and knows no care until it is suggested by more cunning heads.

To illustrate some of the evils induced by opposing nature in the education of youth—to show, in other words, the very common tendency of that system in which early talent and precocious disposition is forced and over developed; we present to our readers the following statement drawn up by a lady who was its victim. We select this case, as the plan of education to which she and her sisters were subjected was, in many respects, preferable to the ordinary routine, though still miserably defective.

"Our family," she remarks, "was large. There were twelve of us in all, eight sisters and four brothers. Our ancestors are said to have lived to a good old age, and no disorder of a hereditary character had appeared in any branch of the family. My father was of a studious turn. He had always paid particular attention to the subject of education, and had, as he supposed, arrived at very correct views in regard to it. He was ambitious that his sons should shine; and his daughters he wished to have more information than in general falls to the share of females. It lay near his heart that his domestic arrangements should be admired in the neighbourhood. He accomplished his

purpose to all appearance; for it is by no means clear that the compliments he received were always quite sincere, though he was too full of his own plans to perceive the circumstances that often gave me suspicion. Alas! had we been thoroughly known, we should have been found to deserve pity, and not admiration. All childish sports—all the pursuits which in early life are pursued with so much avidity, and which give so sweet a relish for the plainest food, and are followed by such profound refreshing repose, were prohibited to us at so early a period that I cannot recollect having ever indulged in them. Do not suppose, however, that we were tortured into shape, or fixed down to the piano for half the day. Nothing of this. We were suffered to pursue the accomplishments of music and dancing only so far as not to appear awkward when we should enter into company, or quite ignorant of the subjects of common chat. For the rest, pains enough were taken to secure us against 'a youth of frolics, an old age of cards.' Nothing was held cheaper with us than the things at which girls are set to work so hard, as soon as they begin to be *misses*, and which they find so useless as soon as they come to be *mistresses*. We were scarcely ever assembled in full circle, without hearing these things made the theme of ridicule. But what with us was substituted for these accomplishments, I can most sincerely say have been scarcely more conducive to our happiness. Vanity was still the ruling principle which kept us from the smiling fields, and prohibited our joining in the loud laugh, or participation in the joys and pastimes of our *less favoured* companions. It was vanity, indeed, of loftier pretensions, and a more solemn aspect; but still it was vanity. For instruction, as much as dress, or personal appearance, may be made subject of vanity. Of this our feelings the more forcibly convinced us the older we grew. We arose with the day and sat down to our tasks. The graver part of light reading was our amusement, and the lighter parts of science our study. By these we were often entertained, and are certainly indebted to them for much improvement. But for health, comfort and happiness, our example shows that something else is required. Oh! how often would I have flown, had I dared, from my books and my tasks into the open fields, to race over their surface with the village children! How often have I envied their lot who were born in stations in which romping was no ways improper: and to cultivate the mind at the expense of the body's health—impossible! Health, with us, was never a constant, and seldom even an occasional concern. To attend to the gratification of the appetite, above all, was considered as totally unworthy a rational creature. Various domestic incidents occasioned us frequently to suffer from too long fasting, which gave rise to a certain inward sense of sinking.

We then ate voraciously, not so much from relish for food, as to get rid of that insupportable sensation. We were entirely unacquainted with the pains of hunger; but then we knew as little of the pleasures attendant upon the gratification of keen appetite. At meals, we collected, with heaviness in our looks, and with an indescribable disrelish in our palate, and of mawkishness at the spot where heart-burn is usually experienced. I often thought that a spectator, used to a party with a proper appetite, would suppose we had just taken, or were about to take physic. Our sauntering walks, taken at irregular intervals, were in the same listless tone. We set out languid, and came home again to our tasks without feeling refreshed. In hot weather we were oppressed; in moderate weather we felt an uncomfortable sensation of chilliness, our feet being generally decidedly cold. But in sharp frosts—oh! I want words to express the misery of that cramped, contracted feeling which seemed to clasp us all over. We often expressed surprise at seeing children, inferior in age to ourselves, pursuing, with delight, their frolics in the open air, while we were sitting alongside the fire trembling with cold. Long before the period of girlhood we found, to our astonishment, that all our former inclination for childish sprightliness, had flown; we felt downcast and cheerless; uneasy when unoccupied, but finding no relief in the regular changes and occupations of the day. As soon as we were permitted, we were glad to retire to our beds; not because when there we enjoyed repose, but to escape tasks and duties which had become tiresome to us. We slept, it is true, if it be proper to call by the name of sleep a state of restless stupor, alternating with frightful or disagreeable dreams, and repeated attacks of the night-mare; but we arose in the morning even more languid than we had retired to rest. The night brought with it no refreshing slumber; the morn never awoke us with that renewed cheerfulness of mind, and elasticity of body, which I have heard it said so invariably follows the sound repose of childhood. But I fear I shall be unable to make our state of nameless discomfort well understood. And if I could, it would prove as tedious in description as it was to endure. Suffice it to say, that the same listlessness of disposition—the same disinclination to exertion—the same indifference to those active pursuits, which are the delight of most young persons, and form a pleasurable relaxation from the more serious pursuits of life, to persons even more advanced in years, have continued to be experienced by all of us, though no little time has, as you are aware, elapsed since we quitted our father's roof; and need I say how feeble our health has been, and how little fitted we have found ourselves to fulfil properly the important duties which have devolved upon us as wives and mothers?"

INNOCENT PLEASURES.

Were man, it has been said, to observe strictly all the rules that have been laid down, as those necessary for the preservation of health, he would be deprived of nearly all the pleasures and enjoyments which form so sweet a relaxation from the cares and turmoils of the world, and prevent his spirit from sinking beneath the various causes of disquietude which hourly assail him.—Never was there a more incorrect or pernicious supposition. Teachers of hygiene, so far from being the enemies, are the firmest advocates of pleasure. The salutary influence, upon both mind and body, of whatever pursuits are calculated to excite agreeable sensations, would induce us, by every forcible argument, to recommend rather than to denounce them. But we are well aware that from the sensual and unreflecting, we shall differ widely in our ideas of what constitutes genuine happiness and enjoyment. The indulgences to which these epithets are by them so fondly applied, we know to be invariably destructive, alike to health, peace and happiness: the momentary and irrational gratification they afford experience proves too often to be the precursor of much real and permanent pain and misery. Of these we are the decided, uncompromising enemies; while, on the contrary, we advocate every species of innocent pleasure, the neglect of which has deprived man of much real enjoyment, and rendered him ignorant of all the happiness that is placed within his reach. In presenting to our readers a sketch of some of these pleasures, we shall be excused for borrowing, almost exclusively, the language of a celebrated English essayist.

It is certain that nature presents to her children a profusion of objects and pursuits, capable of affording the most exquisite delight, without danger of future pain, and even with the possibility of deriving improvement and additional pleasure by reflecting on their past enjoyment. Such, indeed, are all those innocent amusements which we follow in early youth with cheerful ardour, and enjoy with sincere delight. Amidst all the improvements we derive, in after life, from our intercourse with the world, we unfortunately lose, in some degree, those natural tastes and propensities which are most conducive to happiness, and the greatest friends to virtue.

The simple and innocent satisfactions of nature are usually within the reach of all whose minds are not too much engrossed by the seductions of vice, of ambition, or of interest. These, as they excite no violent perturbation in the pursuit, are enjoyed without tumult, and relinquished for more serious occupations, without long or painful regret. It would be to render an essential service, both to happiness and to morality, could we per-

suade men, in general, to form an habitual attachment to the genuine satisfactions growing out of an indulgence in simple tastes and unsophisticated enjoyments.

One of the first affections which the heart perceives, is filial piety. As years increase, this affection dilates and extends itself to brothers and sisters, relatives and friends. The child loves, and is beloved by all around him. Amidst the conversations, the events, the endearments and tender duties of a family, at a still later period, he finds full play for all his faculties and feelings, and is often, by his own subsequent confession, happier at this early age, than in any subsequent period of his life. Were a taste for this simple enjoyment retained, were men at a mature age led to seek their happiness in domestic life, and in the exercise of the milder virtues of family offices and home pursuits, their pleasures, though less brilliant and noisy, would be purer, more substantial and enduring. But instead of this, we too often see them, the moment they arrive at maturity, eagerly forsaking the nest, to wander in search of untried and imaginary bliss, through all the wilds of folly and dissipation. In this pursuit, innocence and health are lost; and whatever progress is made in refinement, little is added to solid happiness. Interest, as it is falsely termed, ambition, or selfish gratifications, become the idol that we devoutly worship, and on the altars of which we sacrifice, without a thought, health, peace and liberty.

Man is so completely engaged in the pursuit of other and less worthy objects, that he has seldom time to advert to the beauties of nature, those fertile sources of unadulterated pleasure. The young and unsophisticated mind is always delighted with rural scenery. The earliest poetry was pastoral, and every juvenile poet, even of the present day, delights to indulge in rural descriptions. A taste for these pleasures will render the morning walk at least as attractive as the evening rout. The various forms which nature assumes in the vicissitudes of the seasons, will constitute a source of complacency which can never be exhausted —a healthful stimulus to both mind and body follow, unlike the artificial stimuli in which the sensualist delights, with no exhaustion in the energies of either. How grateful to the senses the freshness of the herbage, the fragrancy of the flowers—all those simple delights of the field which the poets have, from the earliest ages, no less justly than exuberantly described! "It is all mere fiction," exclaims the man of the world, "the painting of a visionary brain." Alas! he feels not, he cannot feel their truth. He sees no charms in herbs and flowers—the melody of the grove is no music to his ear. By the ingenuous and the innocent, they are still daily perceived and felt; and they have been acknowledged, by men of the most elevated minds, to contribute to pure, real and very exalted delight.

The employments of agriculture, independenly of their profit, are most congenial and pleasing to human nature. An uncorrupted mind sees, in the progress of vegetation, and the habits and dispositions, and uses, of those animals which man has subjected to his sway, charms and beauties which the objects of art can seldom afford. The occupations of husbandry are most favourable toc, to health, to plenty, to repose, and to innocence. Can the pursuits of low and vicious gratifications, can luxurious indulgences, can the restless cares, the fears and anxieties of the ambitious, be compared with the labours and enjoyments of him whose days are spent in superintending the culture of his fields—his nights in quiet and refreshing sleep. Such a life is not inconsistent with a highly cultivated and polished mind. It is by no means necessary that they who engage in rural labours should contract a coarseness of manners, or vulgarity of sentiment.

The superintendence of a garden is another source of simple and innocent pleasure. Nothing is better calculated to gratify the inherent passion of novelty, for nature is always renewing her variegated appearance. She is infinite in her productions, and the life of man may come to its close before he has seen half the beauties which she is able to display.

Short excursions into the country are, of themselves, the source of very sensible and innocent pleasure. But he who is engrossed by vice or by business, will live half a life without admiring the beauties of a blue sky, basking in the vernal sunshine, or inhaling, with any consciousness of real delight, the balsam of a western gale.

In a proper intercourse and behaviour among our fellow creatures, will be found, however, to consist our principal and most constant delight. To do good and to prevent evil, as far as the sphere of our influence or activity extends, is an infallible method of inspiring in ourselves pleasurable emotions. And if we consult what passes in our breasts, before our youthful sensibilities are blunted, we shall find that Nature has taught us to find exquisite pleasure in relieving distress, and in communicating enjoyment.

DIET OF THE SICK.

It is to be regretted that the office of nurse to the sick should be held in such little estimation as to be entrusted almost invariably to persons of contracted minds, without proper experience or education. It is an office, nevertheless, of very great importance and responsibility. For its duties, to be performed with fidelity, in a manner calculated to aid the efforts of the medical attendant, and to afford relief to the sick, it de-

mands, independent of great activity of body, a sound judgment, a cultivated mind, promptitude and decision of character, evenness of temper, and the possession of that knowledge which can only be acquired from extensive experience. Upon the correctness with which the important trusts confided to a nurse are fulfilled, as much almost as upon the skill of the physician, will the speedy and complete restoration—often the very life of the sick, depend.

It is indeed somewhat surprising that females of education, who have been thrown upon their own exertions to obtain a livelihood, do not more frequently apply themselves to the acquisition of such preliminary information as would fit them for becoming good nurses. Were this plan to be pursued, and we are persuaded that it could be with but little expense or trouble, a certain and highly respectable means of support would be at once opened to them. An intelligent and experienced nurse is an invaluable aid to the physician, and a real blessing to the sick.

We have been led into these remarks from a knowledge of the very great difficulty which medical men experience, in most cases, not merely in having their medicines strictly and judiciously administered, but in having properly prepared such kind of diet as the character of the disease, under which their patient is labouring, may demand. General instructions in regard to this latter being constantly misunderstood, and the most minute directions often contravened by the ignorance, conceit, or obstinacy of the nurse.

In popular estimation, debility is the great enemy of the human constitution—the original cause and chief support of nearly all its diseases. To the term debility, it is true, no very definite idea is attached; but nevertheless, it exerts a powerful and pernicious influence upon the opinions commonly entertained, as to the proper treatment and diet of the sick. Of the errors of practice hence resulting, the present race of nurses, devoid of education, and incapacitated, from their very prejudices, from profiting by experience, are the fitting defenders and propagators. To convince them of their injurious tendency is scarcely possible; while, to their misrepresentations and importunities, persons even of sense and education give way with surprising, even criminal, facility. The strictest injunctions of the physician are unheeded, and a system of deception is often put in practice, by which the sufferings of the patient are not unfrequently prolonged and aggravated.

In a large class of diseases it is necessary, in order that they may be brought to a favourable termination, to withhold from the patient every species, strictly speaking, of food, and to confine him entirely to toast, barley or rice water, lemonade, or

some such simple beverage, given in moderate quantities, more as a means of quenching thirst and allaying irritation, than to communicate nutriment to the system. In other cases, all that is necessary is the proscription of all solid and stimulating articles of diet; the patient being allowed to take, occasionally, of panada, gruel, weak broth and the like. Now the absolute prohibition of food to a sick person, is altogether opposed to the popular prejudice, which declares that the strength must be *nourished*, or the disease will increase. The nurse, as well as the relatives and friends of the sick, cry out, very generally, against, as they term it, such a preposterous and cruel system of starvation; and there is, of course, but little chance of its being carried properly into effect. Notwithstanding the stomach of the patient loathe the very idea of food—notwithstanding after he has partaken of it, his uncomfortable feelings, and the increase of all his symptoms, show the impropriety of its use, the preposterous supposition that it affords him strength causes it to be still forced upon him. The popular plan of preventing the patient from sinking, is in fact one of the most effectual means of preventing his restoration to health.

When plain toast, or barley, or rice water is directed by the physician as the sole diet of the sick, it is the duty of a good nurse not only to see that it is properly prepared and given, (and in both these particulars there are errors daily committed which we cannot now stop to point out,) but to take care that no attempt be made to counteract its effects, by the occasional administration of *something nice*, whether in the form of soup, or of more solid food. If panada, or gruel be ordered, such a nurse will not attempt the addition of a *little* wine, or butter, or spice, to render it more palatable, or to increase its stimulating, or in popular phraseology, strengthening properties.

The importance of a strict attention to diet in disease, is becoming every day to be more fully appreciated by even physicians. A proper regulation of the food and drinks of the patient is, in fact, in very many cases, of itself the most judicious and effectual means of restoring health; in all, it is essential to the successful operation of the other remedies had recourse to. For a nurse, therefore, to neglect the directions of the physician in regard to diet, or to place her own prejudices in opposition to his skill and judgment, is to tamper with the life of a human being. Not a few, labouring under curable diseases, have, in this manner, been hurried to the grave.

Health and Usefulness.—Without some degree of health we can neither be agreeable to ourselves, nor useful to our friends; we can neither relish the blessings of Divine Providence to us in life, nor acquit ourselves of our duties to our Maker, or our neighbour.

METHODICAL GYMNASTICS.

In giving the following extract from the work of the celebrated Clias, it furnishes us with an opportunity of directing public attention, and claiming public patronage for Mr. Roper's new Gymnasium. All the benefits anticipated from gymnastics may be realized in this extensive establishment, in which provision is made for all useful and manly exercises in the open air, as well as for a wide range and great variety under cover, in bad weather. It is above Eighth, and extends from Walnut to George streets.

"The process of Gymnastics, methodically employed, could not be advantageously recommended, if it be not proportioned to the age, the sex, the constitution, to the season, and calculated to the degree of state of the patient, and to its irritable disposition. The work, which has been submitted to you, presents a description of two hundred and seven different exercises, of which not one can be classed among the ordinary games. The end of each is to increase the elasticity of the articulation, to favour the developement of the muscular power, to straighten the body, to facilitate standing and moving in any attitude, without losing the equilibrium; these exercises teach you, at the same time, to brave and avoid dangers, and to overcome obstacles.

"*Chapter the first. Lower Extremities.*—In this first section, walking has been described, and is divided into nine different exercises; the balancing in the vaulting beam, the passage upon the elastic bridge, the equilibrium on the ground, running in fourteen exercises, and leaping, which is practised in twenty-one different ways.

"*Chapter the Second. Upper Extremities.*—This second section treats of the various movements of the arms, the exercises on the cross-pole, on the triangle, of those which augment the strength and pliability of the last articulation of the fingers, the passage of the iron bar, and single-stick.

"*Chapter the Third. Complicated exercises.*—In fact, we find in this third series, twelve different ways of climbing, either by means of the climbing pole, rope ladders, or by making use of the sledge or the haspel; then come the various descriptions of wrestling, the exercise of the Indian club, throwing the discus or quoit, swimming, the different preparatory movements of vaulting, those for vaulting on the wooden horse, and the living one. The way to run against the wall, the different trials of the dynamometer for measuring the strength of the fingers, arms, chest, and trunk, equally belong to this section."

Mr. Roper may, with propriety, apply the following remarks of Captain Clias to the course of exercises in his Gymnasium.

"Far from having aimed at exciting the astonishment, or of calling forth the admiration of the spectator, we have adopted those exercises alone which have struck us as tending more or less directly to this point, whether in developing the forms or in fortifying the constitution; whether in restoring the health, or in counteracting natural or accidental infirmities; or whether they only tend to render us more adroit in saving ourselves or our fellow creatures from danger.

"If we have not pointed out a determinate application to each exercise, from amidst the various unforeseen accidents and contingencies of life, it is in the persuasion, that it cannot fail to be perceived that we have left nothing to hazard; and that our proceedings, the fruits of long experience, have obtained the approbation of enlightened and justly celebrated physicians.

"Our plan, as it is divided into three sections, may be applied with success to the first three stages of life. In the preparatory lessons, parents will find unfailing instructions towards the developing the strength and agility of their children; to the masters of institutions, the exercises, properly so called, will afford the most convenient means to cultivate and augment the strength, the address, and the promptitude of their pupils; and the adult, confined to a sedentary employment, cannot better devote his leisure hours than to the practice of some of the complicated movements, in order to maintain a perfect equilibrium between the exercise of his body and mind. If it were necessary to prove all that the health of (literary men) men of letters derive from Gymnastics, we could cite a number of testimonies, among which are those of the different cantons of Switzerland, France, and England."

DEATH BY HANGING AND DROWNING.*

Suffocation, if we include under that term, for purposes of convenience, such various modes of death as hanging, drowning, strangling, and smothering, is, perhaps, of all the subjects treated of in medical jurisprudence, the one requiring most explanation. It is not going too far to state, that not one educated man in a hundred is acquainted with the symptoms that generally accompany death, produced by suspension or immersion, and that still fewer could point out the place or nature of the functional derangement which extinguishes life in such cases. It is far from uncommon, even in this enlightened generation, to hear of unfortunate persons hung up by the heels, or rolled on casks, after they have been taken from the water in a senseless state, in order that they may perforce disgorge the liquid which they are assumed to have swallowed in large quantities; whereas it very rarely happens, that the stomach or lungs of a drowned person contains much or any of the fluid in which he has been immersed, and in no case whatever is the presence of such fluid to be esteemed the cause of death. The effects of

* Law Magazine.

hanging are as much misunderstood; the party dying, as in drowning, from mere privation of air. Coleman and Curry have given ample demonstration that the actual cause of death in both these cases is asphyxia; but as it is more consonant to our subject to select a legal instance, we take one from Senac, who describes the following mode of torture, practised at Paris in his time, and under which the subject occasionally died. "The mouth being kept forcibly open by a wedge, and the nostrils closed, water was poured into the throat. The irritation of the trachea in resisting the access of the unsuitable fluid, while respiration was prevented, caused faintings, convulsions, violent agitation of the respiratory organs, rupture of the pulmonary vessels, spitting of blood, &c.; but very little water entered into the lungs or the stomachs of these unfortunate people, in whom the usual lesions of parts, as in death by submersion, were found on dissection." There is an extraordinary variety of appearance discoverable in drowned persons, owing to the various modes in which death may have taken place. Some faint immediately upon submersion, and in these, extreme paleness is discernible: others perish by suffocation, a small quantity of water entering the bronchiæ, and the lungs: in these the most distinguishing characteristic is a frothy and sometimes bloody mucus filling the mouth. Others again die in a sort of apoplexy; respiration being suspended, the heart drives the black blood to the head; with these last there occur lividness and swelling of the face. Now it will be manifest to the merest tyro in medical science, that all these symptoms may be exhibited in death from other causes. The unnatural pallor is common to cases of syncope; the frothy mucus to suffocation of whatever kind—to epilepsy, apoplexy, or to death from irrespirable gases—the livid loaded appearance of the face attends all diseases in which the cerebral vessels are gorged with blood. We cannot, therefore, from the presence of any of these signs, pronounce with certainty that the party was drowned. Again, much stress has been laid upon the fluidity of the blood, which is sometimes increased in the most remarkable degree; but this symptom is equally detected in those who perish by noxious inhalations, or poisoning with opium. We cannot better illustrate the extreme difficulty of the problem above proposed than by the celebrated case of Spencer Cowper. This gentleman was a member of the English bar, tried at Hertford assizes, in 1699, for the murder of Mrs. Sarah Stout. Mr. Cowper came to Hertford on Monday, the 13th of March, and shortly after visited Mrs. Stout, who lived with her mother of the same name. He dined with them, and stayed till four in the afternoon. When he went away, he promised to return there and lodge that night. Accordingly, at nine o'clock, he arrived, ate some supper, and engaged in conversation with Mrs. Stout, the daughter. They were alone in the room when she called a servant, and desired her to make a fire in his chamber, and to warm his bed. The direction was attended to, and in about a quarter of an hour the servant heard the door shut, as if some one was going out. She remained above about a quarter of an hour longer, and then came down into the room. Mr. Cowper and Mrs. Stout were both gone, and the next morning she was found dead, and *floating* on the water. Its depth was about five feet, and her body was about five or six inches under it, although some of her clothes were on the surface. Her eyes were open, and *some little froth issued from the mouth and nostrils.* The body was not tumified, nor any bruises observed. Such was the testimony of the individuals who took the body out of the water.

Mr. Dimsdale, a surgeon, was sent for to view the body. He found both sides of the neck swelled and black, and the skin between her breasts, up towards the collar bone, was also dark coloured. The left wrist was slightly bruised. There was, however, no circular mark round the neck. The investigation proceeded no farther. Six weeks after death the body was disinterred for purposes of inspection. No farther discovery was made, but

upon incision, it appeared there was *no water in the lungs, stomach, or intestines.*

Drs. Coatsworth, Nailor, Burnet, and Woodhouse, with Mr. Babington, a surgeon, deposed, that when a person is drowned, water must be taken into the stomach and lungs; and as none was found in this case, they were of opinion that she came to her death by other means.

On the part of the accused, it was first attempted to be shown, that the peculiar position of the body was owing to its lying sideways against some stakes in the river. These prevented its complete submersion; and a witness also mentioned that in drawing the body out of the water, one of the arms rubbed against the stakes, and thus probably produced the injury discerned on it.

Drs. Sloane, Garth, Morley, Wollaston, and Corell, with Wm. Cowper, the celebrated anatomist, appeared as witnesses for the prisoner. They were asked concerning the circumstance of no water being found in the body, and whether this disproved the drowning. Dr. Sloane considered it altogether an accidental appearance in the stomach, and not necessarily present in such case. The others advanced similar opinions. As to the fluid in the lungs, the answers were not very definite; but some insinuated that six weeks' burial might have dissipated whatever was taken in.

The prisoner was acquitted.

Upon this trial a question was raised, whether dead bodies will float upon being thrown into the water, and a sailor swore that he had seen dead men float when thrown overboard at sea. The custom of attaching weights to the corpse was urged in confirmation of this. It is now well known that the human body, being of greater specific gravity than water, will always sink at first, but that, as air is generated in the process of putrefaction, it will afterwards, unless properly loaded, rise to the surface. Every one remembers the shocking story of the murdered Caraccioli rising erect from the ocean, before the eyes of the King of Sicily while walking the deck of Lord Nelson's ship. There was nothing extraordinary in that occurrence except the perpendicular attitude assumed by the corpse, arising from the action of the shot attached to his feet, which, although not sufficiently heavy, prevented the body floating in the usual horizontal position, and not, as some have fancifully urged, from the mode of Caraccioli's execution, namely, strangling, which, by distending the lungs with air, imparted a sustaining power to the thorax.

Where there is sufficient evidence to point out drowning as the probable cause of death, the minor difficulty will often arise, whether it was accidental, voluntary, or effected by the violence of others. In this doubt the medical practitioner can be of little assistance, and the proof must rest on other grounds. The following instance of a most improbable suicide would, but for a trifling circumstance, have been accounted murder by every rational man. In June, 1816, the body of a gauging-instrument maker, who had been missing for some days from his home, was discovered floating down the Thames. On being taken out, his wrists were found tied together, and made fast to his knees, which were in like manner secured to each other. The cord with which he was tied was recognized *as one that had hung from the ceiling over his bed*, and the jury accordingly returned a verdict of "found drowned."

In the symptoms attending death by hanging, there is frequently a strong resemblance to those we have already noticed as incident to drowning. The medical jurist has also the same difficulties to contend with; first, in ascertaining whether the extinction of life occurred previous or subsequent to suspension; and, secondly, in deciding by whose agency it was effected. It was for a long time supposed that an infallible test had been discovered for the resolution of the former question from the presence or absence of ecchymosis

on the neck; which, as we before observed, can be produced only by violence offered to the *living* subject. But M. Esquirol has recently shown, that where the person has been suspended in full and healthy life, ecchymosis is sometimes altogether wanting. His reasons and examples may be found in an article of the *Archives Generales de Medicine*, January, 1823. We must, therefore, be content to believe, that whenever the neck is not ecchymosed, the individual was *probably* dead before suspension, and also that the appearance of two discoloured circles, or of one at the lower part of the neck (the cord always slips to the upper part in a suspended body,) are proofs of a strangling before the hanging. As illustrative of the importance and truth of these tests, we may instance the following cases.

"A female of Mantes, aged fifty, was found suspended from a beam in a barn. The face was not discoloured, no froths issued from the mouth or nose, the tongue was natural, there was no change of colour around the shoulders, *nor was the neck at all ecchymosed.* It was, therefore, determined to examine the body more minutely, when a small wound, penetrating to the heart, was discovered under the right breast." Thus a case of apparent suicide was discovered to be murder.

The other case is of a similar description. Bartholomew Pourpre, aged 18, was discovered hanging on a true near Aix, on the 12th of August, 1736. A statement of the suicide being carried up by their order to the parliament of Aix, the attorney-general was led to believe, from the deposition of the examining surgeon, that the young man had not destroyed himself.

It appeared also from other witnesses, that the mark of the cord, instead of being at the upper part of the neck, *was at its lower*, just above the shoulders; and, secondly, that the teeth were knocked in and bloody. Coupling this with the known fact that repeated quarrels and threats of murder had passed between the deceased and his father, a man of 52, the parliament decided that the latter had strangled his son, and had put his foot upon his mouth, either to prevent his cries or accelerate the strangulation. The suspension they declared subsequent to death.

The presumption against homicide, when it is clear that the sufferer perished by no other cause but hanging, must be always very great. Few murderers would employ a mode of destroying life, perhaps more easily resisted than any, unless the assailants be very numerous and powerful. Suicides, on the contrary, find it the most practicable means of casting off their weary load, and one to which they screw their courage with least effort. The materials for the fatal noose are soon obtained by the poorest and most carefully watched, and a beam, a bedpost, or a bough is all that is needed to consummate the crime. There is a slight probability in cases of homicide, that the rope will be contracted into a smaller circle, because the felo de se must trust solely to the effect of his own weight in tightening it. The diameter of the circle described by the cord is stated by Mahon to have been only two inches, in a case of assassination which he witnessed. But the same effect would be in some measure produced by the suicide's throwing himself from any great height. We cannot refrain from giving, before we quit this subject, a brief account of that judicial murder which, through the indignant efforts of Voltaire, once attracted the attention and commiseration of all Europe.

John Calas, a merchant of Toulouse, 70 years old, had the misfortune to be virtuous and a protestant. His son, aged 28, and gifted with some personal advantages, had long before the fatal event we relate, been remarkable for a melancholy turn of mind. Irritated, as has been conjectured, by the difficulties he met with on account of his religious persuasion, when seeking to obtain a licence for practising law, he resolved to hang himself. This he accomplished by attaching a cord to a billet of wood placed on the folding-doors between his father's shop and store-room. He was found lifeless two hours afterwards. The parents naturally enough avoided exhibiting his body,

or proclaiming the manner of his death. But the people, stimulated by sectarian animosity, violently seized the corpse and carried it off to the town-hall. Two medical gentlemen examined it next day, and without viewing either the cord or the imputed place of death, pronounced that the young man had been strangled. On this authority the parliament of Toulouse condemned John Calas to be broken on the wheel. He died protesting his innocence before Heaven.

At length, although too late, reflection came. The melancholy habits of the son were recalled to recollection. The silence through the house whilst the deed was doing; the unruffled appearance of the clothes; the single mark of the cord, which was exactly that which suicide produces: these were all remembered. It became known, too, that a dress proper for the dead had been found laid out on the counter. The cause of the injured family was espoused by the terrible Voltaire. An appeal was carried up to the council of state, who, on the 9th of May, 1765, reversed the previous decree, and vindicated the stained memory of John Calas.

Medical Reports on the Cholera.—Committees have been appointed by the College of Physicians and the Medical Society of this city, to prepare detailed histories of the epidemic or pestilential cholera. These two bodies have undertaken the task, in compliance with a request to that effect from the Board of Health. It is greatly to be wished that the board had preferred the request, and waited for answers, before it committed the absurdity of petitioning for leave to extend quarantine restrictions to all the waters of the Delaware. It would then, if we are not greatly mistaken, have learned the utter inutility of all quarantines and sanitary cordons to keep off cholera. What this community most want, is, not increased powers extended to the Board of Health, but a little more knowledge to enlighten this body respecting the nature and discharge of its duties. The Board ought not to be a nursery for trading politicians.

THE HEALTH ALMANAC FOR 1833.

Key, Mielke and Biddle will soon have ready for the trade, the *Health Almanac* for 1833. This work will be, as heretofore, under the direction of the *Editors of the Journal of Health*, by whom the maxims and rules for the preservation of health will be furnished.

NOTICE

Whereas by assignment, bearing date the 14th of March, 1832, Henry H. Porter assigned all his estate and effects to the subscriber, in trust for the benefit of such creditors, (amongst others,) as shall make and execute a release within sixty days from and after the date of such assignment. Notice is hereby given to all persons indebted to the said Henry H. Porter, to make immediate payment to the subscriber, and creditors are invited to call at his Counting-house, No. 27 Minor street, where the release is ready for execution.

SHELDON POTTER, Assignee.

TO SUBSCRIBERS.

Subscribers in arrears are earnestly requested to remit their dues without delay to S. POTTER. Justice to several individuals concerned, requires a speedy and final adjustment of the affairs of the Journal.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

ealth—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, May 23, 1832. No. 18.

The subject of spectral illusions is more intimately connected with that of health than many persons imagine. To ignorance, and to superstition, its constant attendant, many of the stories extant of spectres and supernatural visitations, are doubtless to be referred; but a large class of these illusions of the mind owe their origin to a disordered state of one or other of the organs of the body, and the morbid impression upon the brain this state produces. While, in the first case, it is by the spread of knowledge, and the more general diffusion of the benefits of education, that the deception is to be removed; in the latter, this can be effected only by appropriate remedies, and a course of life adapted to preserve the body in the healthy enjoyment of all its functions.

No person, well acquainted with the physiology of the human mind, will, for a moment, suppose that the apparition which appeared to Brutus, or the well-known fearful spectre which is said to have warned Lord Lyttleton of his approaching death, nor the many inspiring visions of angels and saints, and the appalling forms of demons, which divers persons have seen, had any real existence. Physiology naturally induces us to refer them to the class of ocular spectres, and other hallucinations of the organs of the senses, and their corresponding organs in the brain. This explanation is rendered more certain, in proportion as we are enabled from facts to determine their correct history, and the state of health of the persons who have been the subjects of such deceptions.

Nevertheless, to the imaginations of the individuals themselves, all these supernatural appearances were, there can be little doubt, as distinctly formed as though they were real tangible objects, or corporeal beings "instinct with life." Though nothing more than illusions of the senses, yet, they were actually seen; and we need not, therefore, be surprised at the testimony which has been adduced in favour of their actual existence. The case of Nicolai, of Berlin, who was haunted by various fantasms, for a considerable length of time, while he was perfectly aware of their real character and origin, shows how readily a weak, ignorant, or superstitious mind, might be deceived in relation to them.

Persons labouring under delirium, are, it is well known, very liable to be disturbed by imaginary objects, the appearance of which ceases the moment the undue excitement of the brain is removed. In no case are these imaginary objects more conspicuous than in that of the drunkard, labouring under an attack of *delirium tremens*—a thousand demons and horrid shapes surround constantly his pillow—disgusting reptiles crawl upon his bed and person, or defile the food and drink of which he is about to partake; and, so strong is the deception—so well convinced is he of the reality of the objects which his disordered senses conjure up to torment him, that he is incessantly putting forth his hands to remove them, or making vain attempts to escape their disgusting or dreaded presence. But it is not necessary that the brain should be disordered to so great a degree as in the above cases, in order for it to produce similar appearances. A very slight irritation or disturbance of certain portions of that organ, either from prolonged wakefulness—the indulgence of the depressing passions, excessive study, or even an overloaded stomach, or the presence, in the latter, of indigestible food, will often be sufficient to create the illusion, either when the person is in a state of imperfect sleep, or in broad day light, and even when surrounded by company.

They who are much endowed with a poetic, fervid and mystical disposition of mind, are those most subject to such illusions. It has been observed by phrenologists, that the parts of the brain which are considered to be the organs of ideality, and of the sentiment of the marvellous, especially the last, exercise, under certain circumstances, an influence over the intellectual organs, or those by which the objects of the external world are perceived, of such a nature as to induce these organs to act irregularly, and thus to call up ideas of recollection, with a force and vividness seldom surpassed by real impressions. By these means, a spectrum is produced, which, unless carefully compared with the real objects by which the individual is surrounded, is capable of deceiving him into a belief of its absolute existence. Novel com-

binations of form are sometimes produced in this manner, by the morbid activity of certain organs of the brain; and thus persons seem, occasionally, to behold figures "of headless and misshapen monsters, of Gorgons, and of hydras dread," which have no prototypes in the material world. It must be recollected, that external objects are never seen in themselves, but merely the configurations on our organs, which the impressions such objects are adapted to create—this it is essential to keep constantly in recollection, when we endeavour to explain the phantasms of the mind.

Numerous were the omens attached by the credulous, in former days, to the manner, among other things, in which candles burnt, and particularly to the colour of their flames. When they burned blue, it was accounted ill luck, or else that some ghostly apparition was about to appear. Now, when the brain and nervous system are in the state favourable to the production of spectral illusions, the imagination will easily colour objects, without their really changing their tints, just as in the delirium of fevers, patients see spots of different colours on the walls, or imagine insects and motes upon the bed clothes. For the same morbid condition of the body, which may cause persons to see the spectral prognostic, would, in this case, cause them to behold the subsequent phantom, and thus the omen and its awful fulfilment would be viewed together in the support of superstition. The occular spectra seen by children, who go to bed with too full stomachs, or with irritable nervous systems, by whatever cause produced, such as the passage of uncouth faces, or of fantastic pageants by the bed at night, are to be referred to the renewal, and owing to the disturbed state of the brain, modification of the real impressions of objects seen in the day time, or vividly presented to their minds by written or oral description.

Persons, whose brains are disturbed by fever, or by disorders of the digestive organs, have seen spectral fantasms in their chambers at night, and have been enabled to compare them with surrounding objects, which have appeared more vivid, and, also, with the common ideas of imagination which have seemed less vivid—and by this comparison they have been enabled to describe them as holding a kind of intermediate rank between real objects and the ordinary pictures of the imagination. Sometimes the other organs of sense, as those of hearing and of touch, are subject to similar delusions: and, in a few instances, where the contemporaneous hallucinations of several of the senses have occurred, the spectre produced, has appeared, accompanied with the highest proofs, apparently, of its reality. Dr. Ferriar has collected some interesting illustrations of the nature and cause of these spirits, and justly observes, that the mythology of the ancients was highly calculated to favour the indulgence in such

illusive phantoms. Many of the superstitions which were engrafted during the middle ages upon the doctrines of Christianity, performed, for various parts of Europe, what the fables of the heathen deities did in ancient Greece and Rome, and what the fairy mythology of the northern nations had effected for them.

But when we have developed the physical causes of what are termed supernatural apparitions, we have not done all that seems requisite to complete their history. Many remarkable coincidences between these phantoms of the brain, and certain real events, to which they are supposed to have related, have occurred from time to time, and are recorded with such seeming accuracy, that they form a curious and interesting subject of inquiry to the philosopher. As far as their physical history goes, dreams, night mares, visions, apparitions, and the like phenomena, are referrible to a common origin, and perfectly explicable upon the established laws of the animal economy; nor are the striking coincidences connected with them more difficult of being explained, upon natural principles, in any of the instances in which we are in possession of all the facts of the case. In many, the impression produced upon an enfeebled system, by the apparent warning or prediction, has, of itself, produced its accomplishment; whilst in others, the apparition and the subsequent event, to which its appearance is supposed to refer, depend upon the same cause—a disordered state of body in the individuals concerned. If correct and minute accounts of the various superstitions extant, in different ages, and among different people, were compiled and published, together with all the collateral facts connected with them, they would clear up many idle tales and prejudicial notions, and show the natural origin of

> "——————— a thousand fantasies,
> Of calling shapes and beckoning shadows dire,
> And air tongues which syllable men's names
> On shores and sands, and desert wildernesses."

DRINKS ALLOWED IN TRAINING.

To individuals who are undergoing a regular course of training, a very moderate quantity of drink is allowed. It is an established rule, that the less fluid there is taken into the stomach the better; too large a quantity being found to impede digestion, and to render the flesh soft and flabby. On no account is the quantity of drink taken permitted to exceed three English pints during the whole day. In many instances, the individual is restricted to even a less quantity. For breakfast and supper, the liquids made use of are either tea or milk, the latter being in most cases preferred. For dinner, home-brewed malt liquor, or

wine, is generally allowed. Upon the propriety of taking either of these drinks, there appears, however, to be not a little difference of opinion among those engaged in superintending the process of training; by a few, pure, soft water, or toast and water, being the only drink allowed; others recommend the use of malt liquors, but denounce wine; whilst others, again, direct the latter, but forbid ale, porter, or beer; but all appear agreed, that the less that is taken of either, the better. Malt liquors are not allowed until after a months' training; and then only to the extent of a pint at dinner, and one-third of a pint at supper. If the person in training insist upon wine, he is permitted to make use of two or three glasses after dinner, but at no other time: the use of red wines is in general disapproved of. When a course of training is adopted for the improvement of the health solely, neither wine nor malt liquors are admissible. The use of spirituous liquors is never permitted in training, on any consideration whatever, not even when diluted. The greatest care is taken to procure the purest and softest water, even though it be necessary to bring it from a considerable distance. Drink is never given immediately before a meal, unless in particular cases, when the thirst is excessive. The water is very properly directed to be taken by mouthfuls, and not in large draughts; in this manner it quenches thirst better, a too large quantity is prevented from being taken, and the stomach does not suffer from being suddenly distended. When the body is in a state of perspiration or suffering from fatigue, the individual is allowed only a very small portion of toast and water; cool, but never decidedly cold.

Exercises employed in Training.—Exercise, properly regulated, constitutes one of the most important branches of training. The great object of exercise is to increase and regulate all the secretions and excretions, more especially those of the stomach, intestines, and liver, and of the skin and kidneys; to equalize the circulation, so that a due amount of healthy blood is distributed to every portion of the body; to augment the power and bulk of the muscles; to impart tone to all the internal organs; where the habit is corpulent or too full of blood, to diminish the amount of fat, and of the fluids which overload the vessels, and to render the blood thinner and lighter. By these means, the individual acquires a more keen and regular appetite, a quick and perfect digestion, serenity of mind, and surprising increase of strength and wind, and the enjoyment of sound refreshing repose. The union, however, of vigorous exercise with pure, free air, is essential to the success of training. Diet, itself, seems to be but of secondary consideration to these, provided the food eaten be plain and in moderate quantity.

The exercises generally recommended are walking, riding on horseback, friction with the flesh-brush, fencing, quoits, tennis, playing at shuttle-cock, and the use of the dumb-bells. These are used alternately, as convenience serves; but no day is suffered to pass without the first or second being used as an out-door exercise, and likewise one or other of the remainder as an exercise at home. Persons under training always commence their exercises early in the morning; in summer, before six, and in winter as soon as it is light. The period for exercise abroad is never less than four hours, and generally from five to six, taken at two or three intervals. The period for in-door exercise, is usually not less than two hours. If a muscular man during his training, loses considerable flesh, his amount of exercise must be reduced. If his limbs, on the contrary, increase in bulk, it is an evidence that his exercise agrees with him. Exercise is never taken immediately before or after eating, due attention to proper periods of rest being equally important with regular exercise itself.

Pure Air.—The necessity of pure air in the process of training has already been adverted to. It is a point much, and very properly insisted upon, by every writer on the subject. The more an individual exercises in the open air, the firmer his flesh becomes. Care, however, is taken, that persons in training, while they enjoy a pure free air for several hours a day, be not exposed to cold and wet. Hence, their clothing is always adapted to the state of the weather, and changed the moment it becomes wet or damp. Rising early in the morning is considered indispensible; in summer, at five or six, and in winter at seven, or even earlier.

Among the ancients, exercise in a pure, salubrious air, was deemed essential to increase the vigour, strength, and activity of the frame. The principal schools of the Roman athletæ were accordingly established at Capua and Ravenna, places, the air of which was reckoned the purest and most healthy of any in Italy. They carried on their exercises in the open air, during every kind of weather, the changes of which soon ceased to affect them.

UNFERMENTED WINES OF THE ANCIENTS.

Mention is made in the most ancient writings now extant, of the use of wines as a very common drink; but whether in all cases we are to understand by the term wine, the fermented juice of the grape, will admit of considerable dispute. It is more than probable, that at first the juice of the grape, and perhaps

of other fruits, was simply expressed, and drank without further preparation. At what period the use of fermented liquors became general, it is impossible to determine. We admit it to be improbable, that the use of an exhilirating beverage prepared by fermentation, could have continued very long unknown in those regions of the earth, where the vine grows freely. The first portion of its fruit, remarks Henderson,* which had been pressed by accident or design, and allowed to remain for a short time undisturbed, would be found to have acquired new and surprising properties; and repeated trials would soon prove the value of the discovery. By degrees, the method would be learned of preserving, for constant use, the beverage so obtained; and various processes would be resorted to for enhancing its grateful qualities. The knowledge of the art would rapidly spread, and its simplicity would recommend it to universal adoption. All this is perfectly true, but, at the same time it is nevertheless certain that the simple unfermented juice of the grape was a very common drink among the ancients, even after fermented liquors were extensively manufactured; and it is to this beverage, destitute of inebriating properties, that the term 'wine' appears first to have been applied: its daily use among the ancient Greeks and Romans is noticed by writers of both nations of unquestionable authority, who have transmitted to us also minute accounts of the various plans adopted to preserve it unchanged from year to year.

It is highly probable, also, that the wines in common use among the Egyptians, as well as among the Hebrews, were unfermented. This will explain the frequent allusion which is made in the Old Testament to "the juice of the grape," or to the drinking of the "pure blood of the grape." That the juice of the grape, simply expressed, was drunk, anciently, even by the kings of Egypt, would appear, from the passage in Genesis, where the butler, relating his dream to Joseph, says, "and I took the grapes, and pressed them into Pharoah's cup, and I gave the cup into Pharoah's hand." And a friend has ingeniously suggested, whether the terms wine and strong drink of the scriptures may not have designated generally, the one the simple, and the other the fermented juice of the grape.

For the following account of the unfermented wines of the Greeks and Romans, we are indebted chiefly to the splendid quarto of Henderson.

The juice that flowed from the gentle pressure of the grapes upon one another, as they were heaped in the baskets or troughs, previously to their being trodden, was in the first

* History of Wines, p. 2.

place carefully collected in the vessels in which it was intended to be preserved, and set aside till the following summer, when it was exposed, during forty days, to the strongest heat of the sun. As it was procured from the most luscious grapes, and kept from the contact of the external air, the fermentation which it underwent would be very slight, and it would retain in perfection the full flavour of the fruit. This liquor appears to have been first made at Mitylene, in the island of Lesbos, and was held in high estimation.

Sometimes, however, when the quantity of the juice thus obtained was either too small, or not sufficiently saccharine, to enable it to keep without further preparation, that collected in the vat, before the grapes were subjected to the press, was put into a vessel of a particular shape, which was properly coated, and secured by a well pitched cork, and then sunk in a pond, where it was allowed to remain about a month, or until after the winter solstice. When taken up, it was commonly found to have lost all tendency to ferment, and might be preserved, unchanged, during a whole year or more. In this state it was considered as something between a syrup and a wine. When, instead of being placed in a fresh-water pond, the vessel was plunged in the sea, the liquor was thought to acquire very speedily the flavour of age. To this practice the oracle given to the fishermen, requiring them to dip Bacchus in the sea, may be supposed to allude.

On other occasions, when the juice of the grapes was deemed too thin and watery for the production of a good wine, as was almost always the case in rainy seasons, it was boiled down to a greater consistence, and a small portion of gypsum was added to it. The Lacedemonians, we are told, were in the practice of reducing it one-fifth part, and keeping it four years before it was drunk; others were satisfied with the evaporation of a twentieth part of the bulk. Sometimes, however, the inspissation was carried much further, and the boiling prolonged till one-third, one-half, or even two-thirds of the liquor were evaporated.

The liquor obtained from the juice of rich grapes, and reduced by evaporation to one-third, appears to have been drunk as a wine, and may be regarded as corresponding to the boiled wines of the moderns; but the other degrees of inspissation were chiefly employed for the purpose of correcting weak must, and for preparing the various condiments, which were resorted to for the purpose of heightening the flavours of the ancient wines. They were, in fact, identical with the *saba* or *raisine* of the French, and the *sapa* of the Italian, which are still used for culinary purposes, and which are made according to the same rules.

THE ART OF SWIMMING.

On a former occasion* we recommended swimming, at proper seasons, to the young and robust, as a recreation, combining the advantages of muscular exercise with those of bathing. As a means of preserving our own life, or that of our fellow-creatures, in cases of accidental submersion, we again call attention to it. Of the art of swimming no one should, indeed, be ignorant. To be able to preserve life, is surely a matter of exquisite delight, remarks Saltzman; but of what effect are all injunctions, excitements, or public rewards, for rescuing an individual from a watery grave; or what the strong impulse of our own humanity, when we are obliged to run about in quest of that assistance which we cannot afford ourselves? Nay, if it were possible that we could regard only our own safety, the utility of the art of swimming is too obvious to need further recommendation.

The ancient Greeks and Romans, when they would express the idea of a man's knowing nothing, or being fit for nothing, used to say, that he could neither read nor swim. All beasts can swim: therefore swimming is not strictly an art, but rather a natural faculty of the animal body, which was bestowed on it by the Creator; because he knew it would be perpetually exposed to the danger of falling into an element, so abundantly spread over the surface of the globe as water. Man only, or rather the polished European, cannot—partly because it never enters into his mind to attempt it as an object of education, and partly because the natural faculty is more or less destroyed by the physical treatment of our youth. This is a serious charge, because it includes with the impairing of this faculty, a number of diseases of the chest, by which multitudes are consigned to an early grave. Scarcely is the infant come into the world, when his chest is subjected to compression. This vile fashion does not cease here; our usual dress worn over the breast, is, in too many cases, a continuation of the compression throughout life. The breast bone and ribs are at first mere cartilages, and should extend with the growth of the body—the increasing lungs should contribute to this, by being fully expanded in the act of respiration; thus enlarging the thoracic cavities, and assisting in giving to the breast that arched form which is commonly observed in strong persons, and upon which the beauty of form so intimately depends. But this we counteract by tight bandaging, and acquire a form very different from that which nature intended. The diminished capacity of the chest thus occasioned, gives rise to various diseases of the chest, and by increasing the specific gravity of the body renders the act of swimming much more

* See Vol. I. page 300.

difficult. Practice may, however, supply, in a great degree, what we have lost. "Nothing, in fact," says Campe, "can be easier than learning to swim. Little more is necessary, than the persuasion that you can swim if you will. This I was taught by the celebrated Franklin, when I was six and thirty years old. On this authority I made the trial, and succeeded. He says, all men can swim as well as all beasts: nothing more is requisite, than to have the courage to put yourself into a proper position, and make the same motions with your hands and feet you see the frogs do. But this courage you will not have, till you have found, by experience, that you can keep yourself afloat in this manner. To make the experiment, walk into the water where it deepens gradually, till you are up to your middle, and turn about your face to the shore. In this situation, you will not be afraid to throw yourself forwards, and imitate the motions of swimming; because you are certain, that you can soon reach the ground, and raise yourself up whenever you please. Thus you will soon find, that water has the power of supporting you. You repeat the trial, and every time your confidence increases: you gradually venture further and further from the shore, and thus the swimmer is formed."

ECONOMICAL SOUP.

It will be recollected, that in two of our former numbers, we noticed, briefly, some of the advantages which were likely to result to the poor and labouring classes, by the general introduction of soup, prepared from the jelly of bones. Recently, the original memoir of M. Darcet has been placed in our hands by a friend, in which are contained full details of the manner of preparing the soup, and descriptions and plans of the apparatus invented by the author for extracting the jelly from bones.* Believing that our readers will feel an equal interest with ourselves in this subject, we shall now lay before them such of the details, from the work before us, as we are able to condense within our present limits.

M. Darcet conceives it to be entirely unnecessary for him to insist upon the wholesome and nutritive properties of the gelatinous solution procured from bones, in the manner recommended by him, and its consequent fitness for ordinary food. This important point is now satisfactorily established, as well by the numerous experiments which have been made with this species of aliment, since its first introduction by M. Pepin, in 1681, as by the evidence of individuals in every respect competent, who,

* Recherches sur le substances Nutritives que renferment les os.

at different periods, have made it a subject of strict investigation. Were evidence, however, wanting, it is supplied in abundance by the facts detailed in the work before us, all of which prove, that independent of its cheapness, the jelly of bones is in the highest degree nutritive, and altogether favourable to the health of the consumer. There does not appear, indeed, to be any substance which can be so advantageously adopted as a substitute for butcher's meat, in the preparation of soup, or, in general, anamalise different kinds of vegetable food, and in that manner render them better adapted for the nourishment of the labouring classes. As an article of diet on ship board, it would appear, in many respects, to be superior to all others.

In the preparation of this soup, it is only the spongy extremities of the long bones, and the soft cellular portions of the flat bones, which are made use of—all the hard, compact bones, so useful in the arts, are rejected.

From long experience, and repeated analysis, M. Darcet has found, that 100 parts of bones, when dry, contain 60 parts of an earthy matter, 30 of jelly, and 10 of fat. One hundred killogrammes, or 221 pounds of bones, contain, therefore, 30 killogrammes, or upwards of 66 pounds of jelly; now, as 10 grammes, or 154½ grains of jelly, is sufficient to make one pint of soup, equal in quality to the best household broth, it is evident that the 100 killogrammes of bones will produce 3000 pints of soup; and one killogramme, (rather more than two pounds,) 30 pints. Now, one killogramme of butcher's meat will furnish only four pints of good soup; hence it follows, that, taking equal parts of both, the bones yield 7½ times more nutritive matter than the meat, as ordinarily used. Every quintal (221 pounds) of butcher's meat contains about 20 killogrammes, or 44.5 pounds of bones. This quantity of meat will furnish only 400 pints of soup, while the bones which it contains will themselves furnish about 600; consequently, from the bones alone contained, generally speaking, in any given quantity of butcher's meat, 3 pints of soup can be prepared, when the meat, together with the bones, in the ordinary processes of cookery, is sufficient only for 2 pints.

The bones, previously to being used, are well broken by rollers or a press; to attempt to reduce them into small pieces by pounders, would be very liable to give to the fat they contain an unpleasant empyreumatic flavour.

The apparatus for extracting the jelly, consists of a range of cylindrical vessels of iron, of equal dimensions, within each of which is contained another cylinder, removeable at pleasure, formed of tinned wire, woven like a sieve, and properly supported by bands; into the latter, the broken portions of bones are placed, when the whole is covered by a close cover, firmly secured. A current of steam is constantly kept up, by a pipe

coming from a proper generator. By this, the jelly is extracted from the bones, which, condensing within the cylinder, is drawn off by a cock placed at the lower part of the vessel.—To give all the details connected with the process and apparatus for preparing this jelly, is impossible, nor would our readers understand them without numerous plans and sections.

The gelatinous solution, as it flows from the apparatus, is perfectly clear and without taste; but contains as much animal matter as the best soup made in the ordinary manner, and may be rendered sufficiently sapid and palatable by the addition of either a small quantity of meal, or of various vegetable substances. It may also be reduced to a dry state, and in this manner kept for a considerable time without the least change;—all that is necessary at any time to convert it into soup, being to boil it in a proper quantity of water.

It has been found that the saline substances contained in meat, are the chief cause of the agreeable flavour which the latter communicates to the water in the preparation of soup. To communicate the same flavour to the soup made from the jelly of bones, from which of course every thing of a saline nature has been extracted, requires the addition of a seasoning, composed of 30 parts of muriate of potash, and 70 of common salt.

In this short notice of the aliment derived from bones, we have said nothing of the large amount of fat which is obtained at the same time, and of the various important uses to which it may be applied.—In concluding, we earnestly recommend to the attention of our soup and other charitable societies, that supply food to the poor during the winter, the plan of M. Darcet, by adopting which, they will be enabled from the bones now thrown away as useless, to procure a large amount of cheap, wholesome and nutritive food; and thus to extend still further, the good they are so eminently calculated to produce.

FRUITS AND PLANTS OF PALESTINE.

Our readers, we know, without distinction of sect, take a lively interest in all that relates to Palestine, the ancient Judea. We have therefore selected, for their perusal, a section on the Fruits and Plants of that country, from the 27th volume of Harper's Family Library, by the Rev. Michael Russell.

It has been remarked that, if the advantages of nature were duly seconded by the efforts of human skill, we might, in the space of twenty leagues, bring together in Syria the vegetable riches of the most distant countries. Besides wheat, rye, barley, beans, and the cotton-plant, which are cultivated everywhere,

there are several objects of utility or pleasure, peculiar to different localities. Palestine, for example, abounds in seasamum, which affords oil; and in dhoura, similar to that of Egypt. Maize thrives in the light soil of Balbec, and rice is cultivated with success along the marsh of Haoulé. Within these twenty-five years sugar-canes have been introduced into the gardens of Saida and Beirout, which are not inferior to those of the Delta. Indigo grows without culture on the banks of the Jordan, and only requires a little care to secure a good quality. The hills of Latakie produce tobacco, which creates a commercial intercourse with Damietta and Cairo. This crop is at present cultivated in all the mountains. The white mulberry forms the riches of the Druses, by the beautiful silks which are obtained from it; and the vine, raised on poles or creeping along the ground, furnishes red and white wines equal to those of Bordeaux. Jaffa boasts of her lemons and water-melons; Gaza possesses both the dates of Mecca and the pomegranates of Algiers. Tripoli has oranges which might vie with those of Malta; Beirout has figs like Marseilles, and bananas like St. Domingo. Aleppo is unequalled for pistachio-nuts; and Damascus possesses all the fruits of Europe; inasmuch as apples, plums, and peaches, grow with equal facility on her rocky soil. Niebuhr is of opinion that the Arabian coffee-shrub might be cultivated in Palestine.*

The *fig-tree*, the *palm*, and the *olive*, are characteristic of the Holy Land, and therefore deserve our more particular attention. In regard to the first, the earliest fruit produced, which is usually ripe in June, is called the boccore; the later, or proper fig, being rarely fit to be gathered before the month of August. The name of these last is the kermez, or kermouse. They constitute the article which passes through the hands of the merchant, after being either preserved in the common way or made up into cakes. They continue a long time on the tree before they fall off; whereas the boccore drop as soon as they are ripe, and according to the beautiful allusion of the prophet Nahum, 'fall into the mouth of the eater upon being shaken.'

The *palm* must at one time have been common in Palestine, though at present it fails to attract attention either on account of number or of beauty. In several coins of Vespasian, as well as of his son Titus, the land of Judea is typified by a disconsolate woman sitting under one of these trees. Jericho, which was formerly distinguished as the 'city of palms,' can still boast a few of them; because, besides the advantage of a sandy soil and a warm climate, it commands a plentiful supply of water, an element absolutely indispensable to their growth. At Jeru-

* Malte-Brun, vol. ii. p. 139.

salem, Shechem, and other places to the northward of the capital, not more than two or three of them are ever seen together; and even these, as their fruit rarely comes to maturity, are of no farther service than, like the palm-tree of Deborah, to shade the council of the sheiks, or to supply the branches, which, as in ancient days, may still be required for religious processions.*

The *olive* no longer holds the place which it once occupied in the estimation of the inhabitants of Palestine. The wretched government under which they exist has rooted out all the seeds of industry, by rendering the absence of wealth the only security against oppression. But in those places where it continues to be cultivated, it affords ample proof to establish the accuracy of the inspired writer, who denominated Palestine a land of oil-olive and honey.

The *cedars of Libanus* still maintain their ancient reputation for beauty and stature; while they are diversified by a thousand elegant plants, which dispute with them the possession of the lofty summits of the mountain. Here the astragalus tragacanthoides displays its clusters of purple flowers; and the primrose, the amaryllis, the white and the orange lily, mingle their brilliant hues with the verdure of the birch-leaved cherry. Even the snow of the highest peaks is skirted by shrubs possessing the most splendid colours. The coolness, humidity, and good quality of the soil support an uninterrupted vegetation; and the bounties of nature in those elevated regions are still protected by the spirit of liberty.

Hasselquist is of opinion that the *wild-grapes* mentioned by the prophet Isaiah, must be the hoary night-shade, or solanum incanum, because it is common in Egypt, Palestine, and Syria. The Arabs call it wolf-grape, as, from its shrubby stalk, it has some resemblance to a vine. But the sacred writer could not have found a weed more opposite to the vine than this, or more suitable to the purpose which he had in view; for it is extremely pernicious to that plant, and is rooted out whenever it appears. 'Wherefore,' exclaims the holy seer, 'when I looked that my vineyard should bring forth grapes, brought it forth poisonous night-shade?'†

The author just named, describes the 'balsam of Aaron' as a very fine oil, which emits no scent or smell, and is very proper for preparing odoriferous ointments. It is obtained from a tree called behen, which grows in Mount Sinai and Upper Egypt, and, it is presumed, in certain parts of the Holy Land. Travellers assert that it is the very perfume with which the ancient high-priest of the Jews, with whose name it is connected, was wont to anoint his beard, and which the Psalmist extols so much

* Shaw's Travels, vol. ii. p. 152. † Isaiah, v. 4.

on account of its rich odour and mollifying qualities,—the emblem of domestic harmony and brotherly love.

There still exists a thorn in Palestine, known among botanists by the name of the 'spina Christi,' or thorn of Christ, and supposed to be the shrub which afforded the crown worn by our Saviour before his crucifixion. It must have been very fit for the purpose, for it has many small sharp prickles, well adapted to give pain; and as the leaves greatly resemble those of ivy, it is not improbable that the enemies of the Messiah chose it from its similarity to the plant with which emperors and generals were accustomed to be crowned; and hence, that there might be calumny, insult, and derision, meditated in the very act of punishment.*

ADVICE TO WESTERN SETTLERS.

The following good common sense directions, from a work† of high value recently published, are entitled to a place in our pages. The author, Mr. Timothy Flint, is already advantageously known to the reading public, on whose gratitude the present offering will make large and well founded additional claims:—

"The most affectionate counsel we could give an immigrant, after an acquaintance with all districts of the western country of sixteen years, and after having seen and felt no small share of all we have attempted to record, would be to regard the salubrity of the spot selected, as a consideration of more importance than its fertility, or vicinity to a market."—The advice to the new settler to supply himself with a good manual of domestic medicine, is impracticable—no such manual is to be found;—that to have a lancet, and learn how to open a vein, is good. The advice to have a small and well labelled and well supplied medicine chest, is not amiss, connected with what follows, viz. "To be, after all, very cautious about either taking or administering its contents, reserving them for emergencies, and for a choice of evils; to depend for health on temperance, moderation in all things, a careful conformity to food and dress, to circumstances and the climate; *and, above all, let him observe a rigid and undeviating abstinence from that loathsome and murderous western poison, whiskey, which may be pronounced the prevalent miasm of the country.* Let every immigrant learn the mystery, and

* Voyages and Travels in the Levant, p. 288.

† The History and Geography of the Mississippi Valley. To which is appended a condensed Physical Geography of the Atlantic United States, and the whole American Continent, second edition, by *Timothy Flint*, author of the "Recollections of the last ten years in the Mississippi Valley." Cincinnati, 1832. E. H. Flint and L. R. Lincoln. Two volumes in one, pp. 740.

provide the materials to make good beer. Let every immigrant, during the season of acclimation, especially the sultry months, take medicine by way of prevention, twice or thrice, with abstinence from labour a day or two afterwards."

We should say, let the immigrant, when he first experiences unpleasant bodily feelings in hot weather, such as head-ache, with loss of appetite, fast and rest from labour for a few days, and he will avoid sickness, and prevent the necessity of taking any physic at all. "Let him," continues the author, "have a Bible for a constant counseller, and a few good books, for instruction and amusement. Let him have the dignity and good sense to train his family religiously, and not to be blown about by every wind of doctrine, in religion, politics, or opinions. Let his rifle rest, and let the game, unless it come in his way, live on. Let him cultivate a garden of choice fruit, as well as a fine orchard. Let him keep bees, for their management unites pleasure and profit. Let him prepare for silk-making on a small and gradual scale. Let him cultivate grapes by way of experiment. Let him banish unreal wants and learn the master secret of self-possession, and be content with such things as he has, aware that every position in life has advantages and trials. Let him assure himself that if an independent farmer cannot be happy, no man can. Let him magnify his calling, respect himself, envy no one, and raise to the author of all good, constant aspirations of thankfulness, as he eats the bread of peace and privacy."

We shall be tempted to refer again to the instructive volume of Mr. Flint.

"*A Whisper to a newly married Pair, from a Widowed Wife.*—Philadelphia. E. L. Carey and A. Hart." P.p. 103.

We had prepared copious extracts from the excellent little work with the above title, but are prevented, on this occasion, from inserting them.

The Health Almanac, for 1833, is in press, and will shortly be published, by Key, Mielke, & Biddle.

PAYMENT.

☞All persons indebted for this Journal, are requested to make immediate payment to the subscriber, as assignee of H. H. Porter, the former publisher.

May 23, 1832. S. POTTER, No. 27, Minor street.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, June 13, 1832. No. 19

On reflection, we believe that we cannot offer advice better adapted to the circumstances under which a large number of our readers will be placed, than that contained in the following extract. It is the concluding portion of a chapter of the second part, or that on Mineral Waters, of a work by Dr. Bell*—the first and larger part being on the various modes of bathing, and their use in health and disease. The advice is equally applicable to all classes of invalids, whether they visit mineral springs for the purpose of drinking the waters, or trust to travelling and change of scene for the restoration of their health. Even the sojourner at home will find hints which he will not be sorry to apply to his own case.

"It is not expected of me," says Dr. Bell, "in this place, to repeat the prolix instructions given by most writers on bathing and mineral waters, for the guidance of those who wish to avail of these means for the restoration of their health. Sleep, diet, and exercise, ought to be conformable to the respective habits and temperaments, and a residence at springs ought neither to be taxed with privations, nor made subservient to debauchery. The period of sleep ought not to exceed eight hours in any case, and not unfrequently six will be found all-sufficient. That food,

* On Baths and Mineral Waters—in two parts. Part I. a full account of the hygienic and curative powers of *cold, tepid, warm, hot,* and *vapour* baths, and of *sea* bathing. Part II. A history of the chemical composition, and medicinal properties of the chief mineral springs of the United States and of Europe. Philadelphia, 1831—p. p. 532, 12 mo.

which at home was found to be easy of digestion and nutrimental, may be used at the springs; and the invalid must never so far forget himself as to imagine that the mineral water which he drinks will prove an antidote against the poison of the kitchen or the cellar. The exercise may be on foot, horseback, or carriage, according to circumstances: the two first are preferable. Attention to clothing of suitable stuff and thickness, always important in chronic diseases, is doubly so when the sufferers under them are at mineral springs. Sydenham has said, that the fashion of changing the dress with each season killed more persons than gunpowder. If, then, a selection is to be made, and change forbidden, in northern or temperate latitudes, let the invalid and visiter to mineral springs take with him and use his winter garments. On such occasions he will almost invariably find himself in situations where mountains are in the vicinity of deep valleys, and where of course, the air is humid and cool. In fine, we may sum up in a few words, by repeating, after the great Father of Medicine, that all excesses are dangerous: a maxim every one must have fully tested the correctness of. Eating much in the evening, sitting up late, prolonged and immoderate dancing, remaining too long in the cool air of the evening, are often the causes of many unpleasant complaints, which might have been easily prevented. The passions are to be kept in check, by avoiding every exciting cause, either of the boisterous or melancholy kind: a giddy chase after pleasure and luxurious indulgence, are scarcely more reprehensible than an indolent and secluded life. It must, after all, appear ridiculous, in the midst of woods and rocks, to make those sacrifices to fashion, which are barely supportable in a crowded and wealthy capital.

"Without meaning to recommend to all invalids at watering places or mineral springs, an entire abandonment of tea and coffee, I must still be allowed to say, that they would all gain by the measure. To a person of a phlegmatic temperament and sluggish circulation, one not suffering from heat or pain in the stomach nor from much thirst, one or other of these beverages will often not be found objectionable; but if invalids who travel in quest of health and who suffer from palpitation of the heart or dyspepsia, use tea and coffee, or from the diseases of the skin, and use coffee, they must be regarded in the light of persons who consent very solemnly to play the fool with themselves.

"Slow and laborious digestion, heart-burn, disordered state of the kidneys, discoloration of the skin, and some affection of the liver, often the effect of excessive eating and drinking alone, are not to be readily cured by visiting mineral springs, and keeping up the same kind of living. If they, and the remark applies to all invalids, be sincerely desirous of gaining health, they will most successfully do so by simplifying their regimen, and abstain-

ing from all those appliances to force appetite and tickle the taste, which they had formerly used in the shape of ardent spirit, wines, and malt liquors; fried meats and pastry, green and unripe fruits.

"Milk, where it can be taken either pure or diluted with hot water and sweetened, is to be prefered to tea and coffee. Bread a day old, dry toast, or plain water cracker with a little cold butter, is preferable in all cases to hot buttered toast and cakes, fresh bread, rolls, or muffins. Butter, in its natural state highly nutritious, and with many easy of digestion, undergoes, when heated in the different culinary processes, changes which render it frequently as noxious and rancid as oil.

"Jellies, plain pudding of rice, or bread and milk, baked fruits with the omission of the pastry, are light and easy of digestion, and often constitute an important part of the invalid's dinner; but before using too great a variety of these and similar articles, after a meal of more solid food, it may be well to remember the words of the poet:

——— 'The stomach crammed with every dish,
A tomb of roast and boiled, and flesh and fish,
Where bile and wind, and phlegm, and acid jar,
And all the man is one intestine war.'

"Water is the element, wisely offered us by nature, for allaying thirst and diluting our solid food; and the art of man has hitherto been unable to produce any substitute better adapted for the purpose. The only reasonable objection to its use, arises from its occasional hardness and impurity; these, though said to exist much oftener than is really the case, may be easily obviated by previous boiling or distillation.

"It has been very truly remarked by the writer* from whom we have just quoted, 'When the stomach feels heavy or distended after dinner, a cup of good coffee is better calculated to remove these feelings and promote digestion than any quantity of wine, or weak mixture of spirit and water, which has of late been frequently recommended, and is often taken for that purpose: *a tumbler or two of pure spring water is yet more effectual.*'

"But the whole weight of reason, authority, and appeal to the individual's own experience of injury from the practice, ought to be enlisted against heavy or meat suppers. A sufficiency of bread taken at the hour of tea will prevent the necessity of any farther call for food during the same evening. If tea be drunk, rather than milk and water, it will be prudent to add to the former a large proportion of milk—nearly one half. This will be both wholesome at the time, and prevent the gnawing feeling or that of emptiness often experienced after strong tea has been

* Adam Hunter, M. D. On the Mineral Water of Harrowgate. London, 1830.

drunk. At the risk of being denounced as an ascetic, and in the gay and fashionable world the denunciation is a formidable one, I can fearlessly assert, that the person who is troubled with sick headach, and has fears of lying awake at night, will acquire infinitely more pleasureable feelings and sleep sounder after a plain supper, at tea time, of bread, or it may be of bread and butter, with water as the beverage, than after any other kind of repast, whether of tea or coffee, with meats, relishes, &c.

"To say nothing of the uneasy sleep, nightmare, and the like, experienced by the supper eater, and of his greater tendency 'to apoplexy, gout, obesity, scrofula, stone, dropsy, consumption, and similar complaints,' his feelings are any thing but enviable in the morning. Obtuse, compressed pulsation, pain in the head, hot, dry tongue, tainted breath, teeth loaded with sordes, general lassitude, and giddiness amounting sometimes to syncope, are in a greater or less degree his first sensations. The person, on the other hand, who wisely retires to bed without supper, or is at least contented with the repast just mentioned, or if his digestion be not specially impaired, a little bread and milk, or a little plain baked fruit and a glass of water, soon sinks into a calm and undisturbed sleep, awakes next morning refreshed and vigorous, his spirits animated, his head clear, and with a mind and body prompt and active to execute the evening's resolutions, and to undertake the labours of the day.

"'Nothing is more common than to hear persons complain that they have no appetite for *breakfast.* After making the usual condolence upon the weak state of the stomach, it will generally be found, on further inquiry, that they have eaten a *little,* here synonymous with *hearty* supper, drunk a *small* glass or two of wine or spirits after it, gone to bed and slept, or tried to sleep, till the family bell rings them down to breakfast. This requires no comment. To those who rise early, and eat little or no supper, the breakfast is generally a pleasant and ought to be a hearty meal.'

"In comparing the directions given by a French writer with those given by an English one, to visiters to watering places and mineral springs, we cannot help, from the few simple hints by the former, in regard to eating and drinking, and the many specifications of what is to be avoided by the latter, drawing a conclusion that John Bull is a very crapulous kind of body. On the same grounds it is to be feared that brother Jonathan must come in for a share of this compliment; for to a certainty he has some of the oddest notions of regimen for a sick man that could ever be supposed to enter into the mind of a thinking being.

"To the kinds of exercise and general range of amusements I have already adverted. I may add, on the subject of dancing, that if the company at a watering place breaks up at a season-

able hour, and if those who figure away on the floor should use a warm bath before retiring to bed, or at the farthest early next morning, that few objections (I speak now as a physician,) can be made to this pleasing exercise. I do not wish it, however, to be inferred that I recommend dancing as a substitute for other kinds of exercise; but merely as a means of agreeably diverting the attention from little uneasy feelings and of passing off the evening—a period which, without one has the enjoyment of pleasing converse, is apt to give our spirits a sombre hue. If, however, the fine and nervous lady, or feminine dandy cannot venture to expose their faces to the elements during the *day*, it would be very unjust even to themselves, if they were to be allowed to spend four or six hours of the *night* whirling and jumping, which, fashionably rendered, means *waltzing* and *gallopading*.

QUALITIES OF VARIOUS FRUITS.

THE *strawberry* when fully ripe is probably one of the most wholesome of our domestic fruits. It is both balsamic and refreshing, says an old writer, and its delicious flavour pleaseth all palates. The strawberry is mildly acid, contains a medium proportion of sugar and of mucilage, and the seeds are neither so numerous or hard as to produce much inconvenience to the stomach or bowels. In some cases, however, especially in children, they have been said to accumulate in the intestines, and occasion alarming disease. This, however, while it should induce caution, need not deter any one in ordinary health from partaking of the fruit. Strawberries have been extolled by some writers as an excellent preventive of gout and gravel, but we entirely disbelieve their possessing any such virtue. Wine, which is much used, especially in Europe, as an accompaniment to strawberries, is injurious to their beneficial qualities, however much it may augment their flavour. Cream and sugar as used with us, are not well adapted to weak stomachs, though they are highly nourishing to the robust, in whom nothing will sooner induce corpulency. As is the case with all other fruits, it is improper to indulge much in eating strawberries after dinner or late in the evening. Contrary to the general rule, the wild strawberry is superior in flavour, though not in size, to the cultivated varieties. *Raspberries* resemble strawberries in most of their qualities; but in flavour are far inferior—to some persons their peculiar taste is decidedly disagreeable. More saccharine and less acid, they will be found to agree, however, with a larger number than strawberries.

The *dewberry* may be considered, also, a very wholesome fruit when fully ripe, and eaten soon after it is plucked from the bush. In general, however, dewberries are more decidedly acid, with tougher skins and larger seed than either of the preceding. They are also more astringent. Taken in moderation, by persons in ordinary health they produce no bad effects—with children they agree better when cooked with sugar.

Among the fruits of the garden we may mention the *gooseberry*. It possesses a due mixture of sugar and acid, but abounds more in mucilage and hard seeds. The skin is, also, astringent, acid, fibrous, and indigestible; in consequence of which it is very apt to irritate the bowels. Gooseberries have been recommended to persons in whom the secretion of bile is deficient, as well as to those liable to diseases of the skin, upon what authority, however, we are not aware.

Unless gooseberries are fully ripe, they should not be eaten—and even then the skins should be rejected. Stewing and baking, with the addition of sugar, however, prove excellent correctors of the crude juices of unripe gooseberries. It is a curious fact, that the green shoots of the rhubarb, which are likewise sub-acid and saccharine, when treated in the same manner, produce a very wholesome dish, which it is difficult to distinguish from baked or stewed gooseberries. In *currants*, particularly black currants, there is a much stronger astringent principle than in any of the preceding fruits; and, consequently, although they contain sugar and mucilage, they prove less laxative than strawberries or gooseberries. The seeds and skin are in a greater degree indigestible, and as these constitute a very large proportion of the imported dried currants of which so large a use is made in various kinds of puddings and confectionary, they must more or less oppress and disorder the stomach and bowels. This should teach us caution and moderation in their use. The plumpest and sweetest should always be preferred.

The same chemical principles, nearly, are contained in *grapes* as in the preceding fruits, with the addition of supertartrite of potash, or cream of tartar; it is this substance which seems to constitute the principal difference between grape wines and all others. Grapes appear also to contain less of the malic acid than the preceding fruits, while they possess a pleasant and aromatic flavour, and many of them a principle of astringency which counteracts in some degree their laxative tendency. The stones and seeds possess this astringent principle very strongly; but it is to be recollected, that so long as they are unbroken, they are, like nearly all other seeds, indigestible. In eating grapes, they should always, together with the skin, be rejected. The large portion of sugar in grapes renders them nutritive,

while in the ordinary state of the stomach, they are readily digested. *Raisins* partake of the nourishing and wholesome qualities of the grapes from which they are prepared; but their skins are rendered tougher by drying, and become, therefore, more indigestible, and the acid is partly dissipated or neutralized, which either increases the quantity of sugar, or renders it more perceptible. The more purple and the less brown there is in the colour of raisins, the better they are to be considered. When eaten, however, in large quantities, or when the stomach is loaded with food, they produce flatulence and colic.

Cherries can hardly be considered so wholesome a fruit as any of the preceding: of their numerous species, which differ in their qualities, some contain a large quantity of water and sugar, which, from being easily fermented, occasion, when taken into the stomach, colic and flatulence; another sort contain a large proportion of water and acid, which though they agree with a robust stomach, disorder the weak, and often occasion sharp pains and other uneasy sensations. The pulpy mucilaginous varieties are the most nutritive. Cherries should always be fully ripe before they are eaten; in general they agree better with the stomach when cooked, than in the raw state. The stones of cherries when imprudently swallowed, sometimes lodge in the bowels and produce dangerous effects. The kernels contain a minute portion of a most deadly poison, prussic acid, and should not be eaten in any quantity.

The chemical elements found in varying proportions in the different kinds of *stone fruits*, are sugar, water, mucilage, acid and woody fibre. Of these fruits the *peach* when fully ripe and mellow, and divested of its outer skin, is the most wholesome and luscious. The kernel of the stone is strongly impregnated with prusic acid, and should be eaten with great caution. *Apricots* are refreshing, wholesome, and somewhat laxative—they are, however, capable of producing great disturbance of the stomach and bowels when eaten in an unripe state.

Plums, unless when fully ripe and mellow, which is best known by the readiness with which the skin ruptures, and the free separation of the pulp from the stone, are injurious to the stomach and bowels; their acerb juices very generally producing colic and gripings. When completely ripe, or plainly cooked with the addition of sugar, they are readily digested and sufficiently wholesome. The *prune*, a species of dried plum, is more difficult of digestion than the recent fruit, when stewed, however, it becomes wholesome and constitutes a very useful laxative. The tough skin and stones of plums should never be swallowed.

EFFECTS OF TRAINING.

Previously to considering the effects produced upon the human body by a proper course of training, it will be proper to notice the regulations in regard to sleep, and the attention to personal cleanliness which are always enjoined upon persons in training, and without an attention to which the full benefit of the course will not be experienced.

In regard to sleep, from seven to eight hours are considered necessary to refresh the body after its daily exercises; and when the system of training pursued is a judicious one, the sleep is always sound, almost unbroken, and consequently its effects are in the highest degree salutary. The individual awakes in the morning with a feeling of alertness and vigour, which is never experienced by those who pass their days in indolence or devote them entirely to sedentary occupations. Persons under training retire to bed early and, as we have already mentioned, re-commence their exercises in the first hours of the morning. Crowded sleeping apartments and soft luxurious couches are to be carefully avoided,

Great cleanliness of person is enjoined in general terms in all the systems of training we have been enabled to consult, but it does not appear that in England, at least, regular bathing is insisted upon with as much stress as its importance undoubtedly deserves. In the Gymnasia of the ancients, whether they were resorted to for the purposes of health, or to prepare the body for the exercises of the public games, bathing at proper intervals was as regularly practised as any of the other items which enter into a regular system of gymnastics. We cannot indeed well see how perfect cleanliness is to be maintained without its regular use. Independently of cleaning the skin effectually from all impurities, the bath exerts a beneficial influence upon the functions of various organs, which aids powerfully in augmenting the health, vigour and developement of the whole system. We cannot enter here into a consideration of the rules to be observed in bathing, nor the temperature of the water adapted to different states of the constitution, for these we refer our readers to Dr. Bell's recent treatise on bathing. We may remark, however. in general, that in training for health the tepid or warm bath will be adapted to a much larger number of cases than the cold bath.

Where bathing cannot be conveniently resorted to, sponging the surface of the whole body with tepid or cold water every morning after rising, following it quickly with brisk friction, will be found an admirable substitute.

Keeping the feet perfectly dry is at all times highly necessary.

In the foregoing sketch of the process of training, we have had reference constantly to the plan pursued in preparing men for wrestling, boxing, and the other vulgar or brutal sports in which the English take so much delight. In these cases the great object is to bring the individuals in as short a time as possible "to the top of their condition," as it is termed. In training for health, however, our object is very different, and consequently the plan will differ in some particulars. The general principles in regard to regulation of diet, daily active exercise in the open air, cleanliness and sleep, will be precisely the same—but some modifications will be necessary in regard to the extent, degree, and sometimes the kind of exercise at first resorted to—the nature and amount of food, &c. By proceeding in this cautious manner, adapting the process in some measure to the capabilities of individual constitutions, the most striking and permanent good will result.

The class of persons to whom a course of training, will be found most beneficial, are those whose constitutions have been debilitated by improper indulgences—sedentary pursuits—or a life of luxurious indolence. Dyspepsia and all its multifarious complications, to which the terms nervous sensations and complaints, have been so long applied, will be found in almost every case to yield to a judicious system of training with very little aid from medicine.

The effects of training on the body are very striking. The appetite is sharpened, and the digestive powers of the stomach so much improved, that all sense of uneasiness and oppression after eating is removed, and the food taken is readily and completely digested.

The chest, in popular language, is rendered stronger; in other words, the individual breathes freely, takes a full inspiration, which is always a sign of good health. The improvement in the condition of the stomach and lungs causes the face to assume a fresher hue; the spirits to be more lively and cheerful, and all the functions of the body to be performed with greater ease and perfection. Persons after training are enabled to draw a deeper inspiration, to hold their breath for a longer period without inconvenience, and to exercise violently without occasioning panting or that sense of constriction which the debilitated so much complain of. The skin under training becomes clear, smooth, fresh coloured and elastic. Even in fat persons, who become reduced in bulk by the process, the skin instead of hanging loosely becomes tight and elastic. The shape of the body is likewise improved; any ungraceful protuberance of the abdomen is reduced. The chest becomes larger and more expanded. The muscles and all those parts which are unduly enlarged, become diminished in size, while those which are preternaturally

small gain an increase of bulk. In fact, as an able writer has correctly remarked, the nature of the human frame is, in a certain sense, totally altered, and in a very short space of time, the form, the character, and the powers of the body are completely changed, from gross to lean, from debility to vigorous health, and thus the very same individual, who but a few months before became giddy and breathless, on the least exertion, has his health not only improved, but is frequently enabled to run many miles, with the fleetness of a grey hound, and to endure a degree of labour which previously would have entirely exhausted his feeble frame.

THE HUMAN SCULL AND FACE.

The following general facts in relation to the human scull and face are from the lectures of Abernethy. We give them in the peculiar style of that distinguished and eccentric surgeon; persuaded that the facts themselves, as well as the manner in which they are related will prove interesting to all our readers.

"There is something to be noticed respecting the general form of the scull. Doctors Hunter and Camper turned their minds to it about the same time, and, I believe, without either knowing the intention of the other. Camper drew a line from the most projecting part of the forehead to the most projecting part of the upper jaw; this he called a *facial* line—this is Camper's facial line. Now if we draw another line through this in a horizontal manner, so far as to pass from the base of the nose along the opening of the ear, we will then have an angle;—the two lines will have nearly all the brain between them: and the greater the angle, of course, the larger the brain. Here is the skull of an African—the angle you see is very small—the forehead goes back—the facial line recedes more and more from the perpendicular towards the horizontal line. Here is a different sort of scull, where the lines intersect each other at nearly right angles. In this way Camper distinguished between varieties of mankind and of animals. I have been sometimes talking to artists over those specimens of statues left us by the ancients. What is the reason that we see in them something that always fascinates, at the same time that we find every thing exaggerated in them? The ancients did exaggerate in their statues: but then there was so much delicacy, so much grace in their exaggeration that you did not see it, but you were fascinated—their foreheads for instance. Look at them, and you see them coming forward—they overhang the rest of the face. You see they do not shelve away—they are broad and expanded. Animals, the brutes,

have scarcely any foreheads; the monkey's forehead, you see, recedes: and here is the dog's forehead—it falls back completely. The ancients, therefore, with reason, gave a full projecting forehead to their statues, to dignify them—to mark as it were, the striking difference there is between man and other animals. Now the *eyebrow* is quite peculiar to man—no other animal has it,—mark that. What did the ancients do? Why they laboured that part of the human countenance with extraordinary care, for it is a part, that is in a peculiar manner, adapted to convey expression. The *eyes* too, they managed in the same way. Some of the inferior animals have their eyes so brought forward on the surface of their faces that they can see sideways: they can see around them and even behind them. That's the case with the hare—the poor timid animal can see behind him; and so constantly does he keep looking backwards when pursued, that he will rush upon an obstacle right before him; and, as sometimes happens in the chase, will absolutely break his neck by the force with which he rushes against it. Now this looking sideways and about one, is the sign of a suspicious, apprehensive, anxious disposition. The ancients knew this, and what did they do? They gave to the faces of their statues eyes that looked straightly and directly upon you—that look directly forward; and they did this in order to convey to the beholder the fact that the originals felt the very reverse of timidity, of apprehension, and of suspicion. Then the *nose*. Man has a peculiar one: it has a bridge to it; all other animals want the nose as it is in man. These animals, instead of a nose, have a *snout*—it's a snout, not a nose. Now the ancients in their heads attended greatly to the nose: you will find they placed the bridge of it very high in the face; they placed it above the centre of the orbit of the eyes. The Greeks brought the nose straight down —the Romans gave it a bend upwards—they arched it, thinking that to be the handsomest form; but this is all matter of taste. The *nostrils* they made as little like a snout as possible. In the statues of the ancients you see the mouth made in a peculiar way; it is, so to speak, as little like a devouring aperture as possible. It is, however, an aperture, and that they very well knew; but they also knew it was made for articulating—for expressing thoughts by language; and they made it as expressive as they could. The *lips* were made muscular and strong. Brutes, we find, have no *chins*—that is a part of the face peculiar to man. The ancients were very particular about it, and formed it large and expressive. Now, if you could put all these features on paper, as I have described them, you would have the countenance of Jupiter Olympus himself. The ancients, however, did not give the same face to all their statues; it is quite true what Dr. Spurzheim said of them, that they knew much

better than to place the head of a philosopher upon the shoulders of a gladiator."

HOW TO WEAR SPECTACLES.

The usual practice, when an individual experiences a diminution or defect in his powers of vision, is to have recourse immediately to the aid of spectacles. Paying, in the majority of cases, no attention to the actual condition of the eyes, by which the imperfection of vision is produced, nor inquiring whether it may not be such a one as will be aggravated by the use of glasses, it is not at all surprising that we find so many complain of the rapid deterioration of their sight after commencing to wear spectacles. But this is not all—the glasses made use of are often unadapted in the nature of their lenses to the state of the eye; are more often defective in their construction, and when otherwise correct, are not unfrequently worn in a manner calculated rather to injure still more the eyes than to increase the powers of sight. The following directions for wearing spectacles are from the work of Adams, and are well worth the attention of all who are obliged to have recourse to their aid.

In the proper use of spectacles there is no circumstance of more importance than their position on the head. They should be worn so that the glasses may come as close to the eye as possible without touching the eyelashes; they should also be so placed that the surface of the glasses may be *parallel* to the object viewed when this is held in an easy position. To accomplish this, let the sides of the spectacles bear upon the swell of the head, about midway between the top of it and the ear; the eyes will then look *directly* through the glasses to the object, and will derive the most advantage from them; instead of looking *obliquely* through them, as in those cases, where, as is too commonly the case, persons place the sides of their spectacles in contact with, or very near, their ears—in which condition they cause a distorted image of the object viewed to be produced on the sensitive coat of the eye. The sides of the spectacles should, also, be placed at an *equal height* upon the head—and the hands being applied to the *points* of the sides, will generally direct their equal height, as well as allow of their opening to their full extent without injury.

We may here remark, that the habit, too often assumed by young persons of both sexes, from affectation, of viewing objects through a single glass, the quizzing glass, as it has been fashionably termed, is decidedly injurious to the eyes. What is worse, like the acquired relish for ardent spirits or for tobacco, the evil

grows by indulgence:—after using a glass but slightly convex or concave, for a short time, the effect produced upon the eye is such that to produce the same degree of vision, glasses more and more convex or concave are required. This was clearly proved by the observations of Mr. Ware at the English universities, where it became fashionable for all to make use of these ridiculous and destructive glasses.

"It was very common, at one period, for persons who had, or were fearful of having, weak eyes, to wear plain glasses of a green or blue colour; and the practice is still followed by many individuals. A more effectual mode of weakening the eyes could scarcely be conceived; the obscurity produced by the diminished transparency of the glass, causing the eyes to strain themselves whenever any thing is looked at with attention; the eyes are in this manner even more fatigued and injured than when exposed unshaded to the light. The injury is farther increased by the bright points of reflected light from the silver frame, from the angular position of the glasses, or from the refraction of the light caused by inequality in their thickness."

CHOLERA ALARMISTS.

There are a set of folks amongst us, some of them having the direction of newspaper presses, who think they are pursuing a very heroic course by putting themselves in opposition to the experience and judgment of medical men, and by crying out that the cholera is contagious. Totally ignorant themselves of the history of the disease, and unfitted by education to sift the evidence brought forward in the case, and to separate vulgar errors from carefully and judiciously recorded facts, they assume their opinions to be the standard, and very modestly intimate that medical men are prejudiced because they will not, in despite of their better judgments, join in the outcry of the contagiousness of cholera. If these alarmists would consent to be admonished a little, we could tell them that their conduct is not only senseless, but cruel, by agitating people's minds with excessive fear—a fear which does not lead to caution, but which is, on the contrary, opposed to some of the best devised measures for the relief of those who may eventually be sufferers from the disease. If the true nature of the origin of cholera be set before the public, as we have at different times done in this Journal, all suitable preventive and precautionary measures will be adopted and attended to. Let the notion of contagion prevail, and what will be the result? All intercourse between a sickly and a healthy city is stopped—hundreds and thousands are thrown out of employment without means of support—they are huddled together in crowds, and idleness in them is apt to be succeeded by excesses of various kinds, especially that most destructive of all, indulgence in the use of ardent spirits. The wives and children of these men, depen-

dent as they were for their daily bread on the labour of the latter, now suffer from want of food—of course are more prone to receive the attacks of disease. Nor is this all—the minds of this class of people depressed by want, and their ignorant fears worked on by the alarmists, they are thrown into such a state of utter prostration as to render them not only subjects for disease, but also to place them in a great measure beyond the reach of medicine. How can we impress upon people's minds the necessity of cleanliness in their houses and persons, and of removing all filth and offensive matter from their yards, if we tell them that those measures are to prevent a contagious disease? Should we encourage them to have recourse to free ventilation, might they not express their fears that the wind would be the bearer of contagion from a city, or a house, in the direction from which the wind blew? But if after all, say these alarmists, the disease should prove to be contagious?—What answer can we make to those who shut their eyes and ears and forego the privilege of reasoning beings, to cling to their first impressions? We can only reply by supposing a case as probable as the one they advocate. If a comet should come near enough to this earth, and give us a switch of its tail—what then? The comet will not come near enough, says a common sense man. Then we say, the cholera has not been, and is not contagious, and will not be contagious, should it appear amongst us. It was at one time thought and believed by many good souls in the town of Salem, that an invisible and impalpable fluid darted from the eye of a witch, and penetrated the brain of the bewitched. Perhaps some may yet incline to this belief, and we think we hear them request that philosophers and people of discernment, generally, should lay aside their prejudices, and reason the affair with them, so as to settle the question With equal plausibility and modesty, may those who are ignorant of medicine and of medical inquiries, and medical evidence, ask physicians to forego their prejudices, that is the conclusions to which they have been led—that the cholera is not contagious; and to try and shape their creed according to the whims of these amateur alarmists.

But these alarmists are also found in the medical profession—they have even been influential enough (and the task was not difficult, considering the leaning of the great and little vulgar to the side of contagion) to have quarantines rigidly enforced, and all intercourse between places prevented. Medical gossip has been, on these occasions, found too strong for medical logic—and what have been the results? Let Dr. Granville speak of the measures of the English Board of Health. We give his own language as contained in his Catechism on Cholera.*

Q. What had the Board promised to the public, the non-fulfilment of which could lead to such a disappointment?

A. The Board in their manifesto, the government in their orders in council, Sir Gilbert Blane in his warning to the British public, and, last and *most*,

* We always deem the cause of science to be paramount to all personal considerations; and hence refer to Dr. Granville's present views, with pleasure, although we have just cause of complaint at his plagiarism in copying without acknowledgment the American Catechism of Health, and calling it his own work.

the Quarterly Review in their archi-absurd articles contained in the 91st number, had led the public to believe that if the quarantine laws were strictly enforced, the disease would not appear amongst us. Now the quarantine laws were strictly enforced in the port of Sunderland, to the great inconvenience of their trade, and had never, as it has since been officially asserted, been infringed; yet cholera in its worst form made its appearance in that town, destroying its victims in the same frightful proportion in which the same malady was destroying them on the neighbouring coast of the continent, and with precisely the same symptoms.

Q. What led the Board to make such a promise, which has got them into so awkward a scrape?

A. A first and fatal error: that of supposing that severe and fatal cholera had never existed until it showed itself in India, in 1817; whereas even upon that point they are wrong, since the same disorder was described as fatally prevalent in the hospitals of Madras ten years before, under the vulgar and awful name of "*mort-de chien*," (dogs-death, from the acute suffering of the patient:) and a second still more fatal error, that of supposing the disease to possess the character of the plague, and of being transmitted from one place to another through the agency of man or merchandise, in order to account for its successive developement in various parts of Asia and Europe. Thus did these physicians reason: The cholera took its rise at the mouth of the Ganges; it went to China on the one side, and to Persia on the other; from thence to Russia, Poland, Austria, and Prussia. It is now at Hamburg, and if you do not prevent men and goods from being introduced into this country, from that city, or any other, where the cholera may be raging, the disease will be introduced along with them. What has happened? The introduction of men and goods were prevented, but not the appearance of the disease.

Q. What are we to conclude from that striking fact?

A. That the cholera is not a *contagious* disorder, but an *epidemic* one: that it is not a transmitted malady, but one spontaneously evolved in the countries in which it has raged, and likely to do so in Holland, France, Italy, and other countries hitherto free from it, in the course of the next two years.

Q. I wish you would enable me, by some simple explanation, fully to comprehend the meaning of the two words you have just used—contagious and epidemic?"

[Omitting the illustration of a contagious disease in the plague, we pass on to that part of the answer concerning an epidemic disease.]

"A family is taken ill at a particular season of the year with any known disease. Another family or person is soon afterwards similarly affected: and many more follow under the same circumstances, until the greater part of the inhabitants of a town or district have, more or less, experienced the same morbid influence on their system. The same occurrence may take place in a prison—a camp—an hospital—a manufactory—a ship:—the disease goes through its various stages, often unchecked by any effort that can be made to extinguish it. It disappears at last, and for a time, generally indefinite, does not occur again; or it re-appears at uncertain epochs: or another disease takes its place, following the same course, affecting equally the greater number of the inhabitants of the place or district where it appears, and terminating at last in the same manner. A catarrh is known to have affected, at particular epochs, two thirds of the inhabitants of a town. Carli, in his History of Verona, observes, that this disease had been so prevalent in 1438, that it overran the whole of Italy, and was principally fatal to children and old people. The influenza which prevailed in London in the year 1782 was of this class. The croup, the hooping-cough, &c. are known to make their appearance, some years, in particular places, where they at-

tack indiscriminately many individuals. The former became so prevalent in some of the French provinces about the years 1809 and 1810, that Bonaparte offered a premium of 12,000 francs for the best treatise on that disease. An old physician, Sennertus, states, that a particular malignant fever with spasm afflicted the bishoprics of Cologne and Westphalia in 1596-7. While Mantua was beseiged by the French army in 1796, upwards of 25,000 citizens and soldiers perished from a peculiar fever: yet after the French army entered that town, no case of that disease occurred, either amongst the inhabitants or the garrison. We read in the History of France, by Mezerai, that a peculiar sort of cough, with fever, attacked generally and indiscriminately all the old people in Paris, during the months of February and March, 1414, and that the name of *coqueluche* was given to it from a particular cap called *coqueluchon*, used to keep off the cold air so pernicious in this complaint: nearly the same with that which has since appeared in Paris, called *Le Gripe*, which is reported to have affected 140,000 inhabitants. During the siege of Genoa in 1799, a petechial fever prevailed among the garrison and the inhabitants, the greatest part of whom felt its bad effects: some parts of the town seemed more exposed to the influence of the disease than others, and a very limited residence in those parts was sufficient to develope the disease in a healthy individual. The same occurred a few years later at Leghorn—and again at Malaga; in both which places, sleeping one night only in the town was followed by the disease. The fever which has been called the *typhus*, followed both in England and Ireland, in 1817 and 1818, the same course. Particular districts of a town, and even particular parts of the same house, seemed more liable to the developement of the disease than others. The same is recorded of those febrile complaints which have prevailed in some parts of America within the last twenty years. Such again is not the history of contagious, but of EPIDEMIC diseases."

Quarantine and sanitary cordons, were found of no avail in Russia, Prussia, or Austria.—They did not keep off the disease from Astrachan, St. Petersburg, Dantzic, Berlin, Breslaw, Vienna, Hamburg, &c. &c. Let us be benefitted by these examples, and not imitate in the United States these cruel restrictions, more calculated to produce than to ward off the dreaded evil.

"It is clear and open to every inquirer," says Lefevre, in his observations on the disease at St. Petersburg, "that the Cholera did not occur in many places which had the greatest intercourse with Petersburg at the height of the malady, and that it broke out in many others which have been subjected to the strictest quarantines."

THE HEALTH ALMANAC for 1833, will be published and ready for sale to the trade, on the 1st of July next, by *Key, Mielke, and Biddle.*

Thomas Desilver, jr. Market street, has in press, and will speedily publish, a History of the *Epidemic Cholera*, and the means of preventing the disease; being a Report of the *College of Physicians* of Philadelphia, to the *Board of Health* of the same city: to which is added a full account of the *Symptoms* and *Seats* of the disease, and the *Method of Treatment* adopted in the different countries in which the Cholera has prevailed.—By John Bell, M. D. and D. F. Condie, M. D.

PAYMENT.

☞ALL persons indebted for this Journal, are requested to make immediate payment to the subscriber, as assignee of H. H. Porter, the former publisher.

May 23, 1832. S. POTTER, No. 27, Minor street.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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It is a lamentable thing to see that for one step towards civilization men often make three towards degradation. We speak now of men in masses, such as constitute a people—not of the more favoured few, to whose comfort and luxuries the others administer. The motives by which persons congregated and settled to form towns, were—first, for protection against incursions of the Nomade robbers; secondly, with a view to foreign trade, and domestic manufacture. The secondary effects of this gathering together were increased splendour of the arts, and display of intellectual vigour, and refinement—rivalry in all the operations of the mind. But these benefits are counteracted by many evils. Ambition driving its votaries to every extreme, either of excellence or crime—a sensibility so morbid as to cease to acknowledge the influence of common impressions, a constantly craving for something monstrous and unnatural—feebleness of the body, for the want of pure air and adequate exercise—feebleness of the mind, where each leans, in a measure, upon his neighbour, for his comfort or amusement, and where the loftier emotions and aspirations are ridiculed as wild and ungraceful—these are some of the disadvantages of a civic life. No sense receives in a suitable degree its appropriate stimulus—the eyes either suffer from a glare of light, or do not receive enough: they are strained by the inspection of minute objects, or offended by various vapours, dust, fine particles given off from metals, stones, &c.:—the ears are stunned by loud noises and discords,

worse than fabled Pandemonium itself:—the taste is stimulated by nearly every substance, or combination of substances, which ingenuity can devise, except simple and healthful nutriment. This necessary supply is half poisoned by the cookery of the rich, and does not reach the poor in cities. But most of all does the skin suffer—the complexion is not merely pale, it is ash-coloured, dingy, or sallow—the people of the cities become etiolated—they are in tens of thousands bleached for want of due exposure to the sun and air. They are pale, also, because the blood does not circulate through their bodies with that rapid, but yet even course, which results from living in the pure air of the country. The blood does not circulate evenly and rapidly, because the citizen does not exercise his body enough—we mean exercise all his limbs, and expand his chest—and because, as he breathes a close and impure air, the blood is not changed, as it ought to be, in the process of respiration—it does not acquire that rich vermilion colour, and the other properties, to fit it for being the pabulum of all the organs, the stimulus to all the functions. Look at those thousands and tens of thousands of miserable pale, wan, and often deformed beings, in the large manufacturing cities of Great Britain, and then ask whether she, whether the world does not pay too dear for the productions of her looms and her smitheries. It is for the people of the United States to take warning from her example, and not heedlessly hurry on the same melancholy state of things. It ought to be the practice, as it is the theory, of our republican institutions, that, whilst free scope is given to individual enterprise, and every man is insured the possession of all the advantages which he has obtained by his industry and skill, the unfortunate and the needy are not left in utter destitution, nor hopeless misery, but find in the government a kind parent protecting them against farther suffering, and opening anew the road to personal independence and comfort. It is not enough that the people should be made acquainted with the best means of preserving their health and preventing the ravages of disease, if the means are not readily accessible, without any material deduction from the product of their daily toil. Wherever people are crowded together in small ill ventilated apartments, in which they work by day and sleep by night, and are deprived of adequate exercise in the open air, they are always predisposed to direful diseases—call them malignant or typhus fevers, plague or cholera—what you will. Greatly are the probabilities of disease increased, if the persons thus unfavourably circumstanced be negligent of personal cleanliness, and fail to preserve the skin free from impurities by regular ablution.

That the inhabitants of all our cities and towns, and even villages, suffer in large numbers from these two evils, viz:—long

confinement at labour, without adequate exercise in the open air, and impurities of the skin, unremoved by free ablution, no one can doubt. It seems to us to be equally clear that the governments, both of state and city, should make suitable provisions against these evils. Citizens are taxed, and often taxed largely, to enable the treasury of a corporation to pay for the maintenance of the infirm poor, and for their being nursed and lodged in sickness. Does it not seem the part of truer wisdom, and more conformable with charity, to so administer aid, as to prevent the occurrence of disease, and with it the expense which is required for its relief. To accomplish this object we know of few methods so feasible as the establishment of *public gymnasia* and *public baths.* In the former, the poor but industrious mechanic or artisan, should have an opportunity, after leaving his close shop, or manufactory, of recreating himself in the open air, and engaging in exercises calculated to correct the effects of injurious attitudes, and to call into play all parts of his muscular system. In the latter he could enjoy the comfort of free ablution, and be able to retire to his bed with a skin cleansed of all impurities, and better calculated to resist the vicissitudes of weather, and their common consequences, colds, rheumatisms, &c. The moral effect of such institutions would be of incalculable value. The time devoted to them would be often so much abstracted from lounging idly in their close rooms at home, or, still worse, in frequenting grog shops, and drinking and getting drunk.

When we recommend *public gymnasia* and *public baths*, we do not mean that access to them should be entirely gratuitous, but that the cost of admission should be so small as to be within the means of the poorest workman; the sum received might, perhaps, be enough to keep the establishment in repair, and to pay for their current expenses.

SPANISH SCENERY.

To those of our readers who have not an opportunity of perusing the Alhambra, or Tales and Sketches of the Moors and Spaniards, by Washington Irving, the following extracts will prove acceptable:—

"And here, before setting forth, let me indulge in a few previous remarks on Spanish scenery and Spanish traveling. Many are apt to picture Spain to their imaginations as a soft southern region, decked out with all the luxuriant charms of voluptuous Italy. On the contrary, though there are exceptions in some of the maritime Provinces, yet, for the greater part, it is a stern, melancholy country, with rugged mountains, and long, naked,

sweeping plains, destitute of trees, and invariably silent and lonesome, partaking of the savage and solitary character of Africa. What adds to this silence and loneliness, is the absence of singing birds, a natural consequence of the want of groves and hedges. The vulture and the eagle are seen wheeling about the mountain cliffs and soaring over the plains, and groups of shy bustards stalk about the heaths; but the myriads of smaller birds which animate the whole face of other countries, are met with in but few Provinces of Spain, and in them chiefly among the orchards and gardens which surround the habitations of man.

"In the exterior Provinces, the traveller occasionally traverses great tracts cultivated; the grain, as far as the eye can reach, waving, at times naked and sun burnt; but he looks round in vain for the hand that has tilled the soil. At length he perceives some village perched upon a steep hill or rugged crag, with mouldering battlements and ruined watch tower, a strong hold in old times against civil war or Moorish inroad; for the custom among the peasantry of congregating together for mutual protection is still kept up in most parts of Spain, in consequence of the marauding of roving freebooters. But though a great part of Spain is deficient in the garniture of groves and forests, and the softer charms of ornamental cultivation, yet its scenery has something of a high and lofty character to compensate the want. It partakes something of the attributes of its people, and I think that I better understand the proud, hardy, frugal and abstemious Spaniard, his manly defiance of hardships and contempt of effeminate indulgences, since I have seen the country he inhabits. There is something, too, in the sternly-simple features of the Spanish landscape, that impresses on the soul a feeling of sublimity; the immense plains of the Castiles and la Mancha, extending as far as the eye can reach, derive an interest from their very nakedness and immensity, and have something of the solemn grandeur of the ocean. In ranging over these boundless wastes, the eye catches sight, here and there, of a straggling herd of cattle, attended by a lonely herdsman, motionless as a statue, with his long, slender pike, tapering up like a lance into the air, or beholds a long train of mules moving slowly along the waste, like a train of camels in the desert, or a single herdsman, armed with blunderbuss and stiletto, and prowling over the plain. Thus the country, the habits, the very looks of the people have something of the Arabian character. The general insecurity of the country is evinced in the universal use of weapons. The herdsman in the field, the shepherd in the plain, has his musket and his knife. The wealthy villager rarely ventures to the market town without his trabucho, and, perhaps, a servant on foot with a blunderbuss on his shoulder; and the most petty journey is undertaken with

the preparation of a warlike enterprise. The dangers of the road produce also a mode of traveling resembling, on a diminutive scale, the caravans of the east. The *arrieros*, or carriers, congregate in troops, and set off in large and well armed trains on appointed days, while individual travellers swell their numbers and contribute to their strength. In this primitive way is the commerce of the country carried on. The muleteer is the general medium of traffic, and the legitimate wanderer of the land, traversing the peninsula from the Pyrenees and the Asturias to the Alpuxarnas, the Serrania de Rondo, and even to the gates of Gibraltar. He lives frugally and hardily; his alfongas (or saddlebags of coarse cloth) hold his scanty stock of provision; a leathern bottle hanging at his saddlebow, contains wine or water for a supply across barren mountains and thirsty plains; a mule cloth spread upon the ground is his bed at night, and his packsaddle is a pillow; his low but clear limbed and sinewy form betoken strength; his complexion is dark and sunburnt; his eye resolute, but quiet in its expression, except when kindled by sudden emotion; his demeanour is frank, manly and courteous, and he never passes you without a grave salutation, 'dios guarda à usted!' 'vay usted con dios caballero!' 'God guard you!' 'God be with you! cavalier.'

"The ancient kingdom of Granada, into which we are about to penetrate, is one of the most mountainous regions of Spain. Vast sierras, or chains of mountains, destitute of shrub or tree, and mottled with variegated marbles and granites, elevate their sun burnt summits against a deep blue sky, verdant with fertile valleys, where the desert and the garden strive for mastery, and the very rock, as it were, compelled to yield the fig, the orange, and the citron, and to blossom with the myrtle and the rose. In the wild passes of these mountains, the sight of walled towns and villages built like eagles' nests among the cliffs, and surrounded by Moorish battlements; or of ruined watch towers, perched on lofty peaks, carry the mind back to the chivalrous days of Christian and Moslem warfare, and to the romantic struggle for the conquest of Granada. In traversing their lofty sierras, the traveller is often obliged to alight and lead his horse up and down the steep and jagged ascent and descent, resembling the broken steps of a staircase. Sometimes the road winds along dizzy precipices, without parapets to guard him from the gulfs below, and then will plunge down steep and dangerous declivities. Sometimes it struggles through rugged barrancos, or ravines, worn by water torrents, the obscure paths of the contrabandista, while ever and anon the ominous cross, the memento of robbery and murder, erected on a mound of stones at some lonely part of the road, admonish the traveller that he is among the haunts of banditti; perhaps at that very moment under the eye

of some lurking bandalero. Sometimes, in winding through the narrow valleys, he is startled by a hoarse bellowing, and beholds above him, on some green field of the mountain's side, a herd of fine Andalusian bulls, destined for the combat of the arena. There is something awful in the contemplation of these terrific animals, clothed with tremendous strength, and ranging their native pastures, in untamed wildness, strangers almost to the face of man. They know no one but the solitary herdsman who attends upon them, and even he at times dares not venture to approach them. The low bellowings of these bulls, and their aspect as they look down from their rocky height, give menacing and additional wildness to the savage scenery around."

A MOTHER'S CONFESSION.

"I CONFESS that I never followed undeviatingly any one principle during a single month—nay, not for more than a few hours at a time; that, very often, partly with a reason, and consequently, partly without one, I have forbidden my children to do something, without afterwards seeing that they obeyed.—I confess that at times of joyful excitement, I have not been able to refuse them that which in an unexcited state of mind, I could without effort have denied them, and that thus they have been in a few hours incalculably spoilt. I confess that I have made my dear beautiful Laura play the belle before company; that I have schooled them all for the reception of a distinguished visiter, in order that they might appear to advantage in his presence—thereby showing that I valued the temporary good opinion of a single guest, more than the lasting well being of five children. I confess, that in the last week I have seen my two youngest only once a day, at breakfast, because I had a novel and a piece of embroidery to finish; I have, however, the satisfactory reflection, that I got for the dear little creatures a most excellent nurse, who declared to me, that she would treat them just as if they were her own. I confess, that although calm in my behaviour towards every one else, I can never be so with my children, notwithstanding I am well aware that the least vehemence, though it show itself in a spring to their assistance, is hurtful. I confess that I often let them see me out of temper, particularly with my maids, although I acknowledge the truth of what my husband says—that to let children, even the youngest, see an angry countenance, or hear an angry word, is to give them instruction in anger. I confess that I admit my three eldest daughters into my dressing room, when I am dressing myself for company, both because it gives them so much pleasure, and

because such exercise to their young eyes is the best lesson they can have in the art of the toilet. I must add, however, that to correct the injurious effects which this might have, I never try on a new dress without giving them a long lecture, in which I tell them that female worth does not depend upon dress—at the same time I confess that all my daughters are vain, and I suspect, that when I am ornamenting myself, they look much more than they listen."—*Richter.*

CAUSE OF GOITRE IN THE CORDILLERAS.

An Inquiry into the Cause of Goitre in the Cordilleras of New Granada. By J. B. Boussingault.

From the original paper in French, transmitted to the American Philosophical Society, we have prepared the following abstract:

Monsieur Boussingault premises, that he does not possess the necessary medical knowledge for a full investigation of the subject of goitre, and would feel a backwardness in giving his own observations respecting it, were he not convinced that an inquiry into the endemical nature of a disease does not presuppose a man's being a physician.

Mr. B. passes rapidly in review the commonly alleged causes of goitre, and shows that no one of them is adequate to produce and explain all the circumstances of the disease. He next points out a fact which may have a marked effect in bringing on goitre, and in support of his opinion adduces details and experiments; and, finally, he indicates the precautionary means to be adopted in the Cordilleras, for the purpose of warding off goitrous disorders.

Time not being allowed to translate entire the valuable paper of Mr. Boussingault, we must content ourselves with giving the leading points of his views and inferences.

After alluding to the opinion that drunkenness, filth, and the use of gross food give rise to goitre, he proceeds to examine more in detail the belief of the disease being produced by residence in a close, humid and warm air. He shows the fallacy of this latter supposition, by pointing to the fact of goitre being very common at Sante Fe de Bogota, a city 2640 metres above the level of the ocean, and in the enjoyment of a mean temperature of 50° F. or 14.5 cent.; and at Chita, in the department of Boyaca, where the air is dry and the temperature moderate, approaching to coolness, the disease is very prevalent.

The water from melted snow has also been regarded as a cause of goitre in those who are obliged to use it for drink. The same

effect is said to result from the waters of certain springs, either on account of their low temperature, or of the saline matter which they hold in solution. In regard to the first of these alleged causes, Mr. Boussingault points out the circumstance of many goitrous persons living in districts in which no melted snow is found, or used. And as to the second, he mentions that there are but two places in New Granada in which spring water is used for drink. In the one, the water which issues from a quartz rock, there is no goitre; in the other, supplied with water from a calcarious rock, the disease is very prevalent and distressing.

This leads the author to inquire into the chemical qualities of water in reference to the matters it may hold in solution as a cause of goitre; in other words, to ascertain whether the geognostic characters of a country throw light on the cause of the disease. A series of interesting observations are presented on this subject by Mr. B. which we have not time here to reproduce. He arrives at one conclusion, that the goitre is very prevalent in places at a very great elevation above the sea, or in those overtopped by lofty mountains; and that the disease is rarely endemic in those places situated in plains, and at a considerable distance from the Cordilleras. An exception to this inference is found in the mountainous districts of Antioquia, in which, however, as well as in the valley of Caraca, also enjoying immunity from the disease, the inhabitants make free use of the product of their salines. These springs issue from a porphyritic rock, and although varying in the proportion of salts held by their waters in solution, they all contain an appreciable quantity of iodine. Not only are the inhabitants of this province exempt, but also those who come and reside there for a time are cured of their goitres. So decidedly marked is the effect of the impure salt thus obtained from these salines, that in a family which obtained it purified from the foreign matter, which gave it a disagreeable smell, the goitre made its appearance. At Cartago, during a long period, when no other than the iodiferous salt was used, the goitre was unknown; but when salts from other salines were substituted, many were attacked with the disease; and if it have not made greater progress, the cause must be found in the circumstance of the meat being salted with the common or iodiferous salt of the country.

The fixed opinion in New Granada, that goitre has its origin in the use of certain waters for drink, is confirmed by the fact, that persons, whose only change of living or of exposure to hygienic agents, has been in drinking a different kind of water, have been entirely cured of goitre. Even without any change of abode, but merely by families obtaining water for drink from a river at some distance from their abode, they have been cured. A contributing cause of the unhealthiness of water from the

glaciers, or from springs in the mountains, is, in Mr. Boussingault's opinion, owing to the great height at which they are, and consequently diminished atmospheric pressure, so that they do not hold their usual proportion of atmospheric air. A number of ingenious comparative experiments are made on this point by the author. At some of the elevations of the Cordilleras the water does not contain more than a third of the quantity of atmospheric air held in solution by water near the level of the ocean. This difference may be partially obviated by exposure of the former for 24 to 36 hours to the air. Stagnant water has also less oxygen of the atmosphere, and water mixed with vegetable matters absorbs this gas, and contains, therefore, less air in solution. Mr. B. mentions an instance of a large family escaping goitre by using water for drink which had been exposed for many hours to the open air.

It has been found that the tendency of the inhabitants living on the banks of a river to acquire this disease, diminishes in proportion as the stream leaves the higher regions and approaches towards the ocean. Rain water substituted for spring or stagnant water, or that from melted snow, has been found a protection against the goitre.

Among the preventive measures recommended by Mr. B. against the goitre, was the formation of cisterns to hold water, and allow of its free exposure to atmospheric air. But he lays most stress, both as a curative and preventive means, on the distribution to the inhabitants of salts containing iodine.

TRAINING FOR LADIES.

It has been asked whether training is as proper for females, as for the opposite sex, and under what circumstances they will derive advantage from it. Leaving diseases entirely out of the question, training is strongly recommended to our fair readers as one of the most certain and infallible means ever discovered for improving the beauty of the form, the brightness of the eyes, and the clearness and transparency of the complexion. Lest, however, this declaration may be sadly misunderstood, we may as well declare at once, that we are no admirers of barn-door beauties, with great bluff, ruddy cheeks; nor city beauties, puffy, punchy, and unwieldy, as if they were Falstaff's great-grand-daughters; nor hot bed beauties, ghost-like, bloodless, and fleshless, with neither roses nor lilies to boast of, in their pale and unsunned faces. This being recollected as our negative creed of beauty, we say, that a judicious course of training,—that is to say early rising; plain, substantial food; "the crystal element

for drink;" regular and sufficient bodily exercise in the open air; the use of the bath; the avoidance of midnight assemblages; and, last not least, the laying aside of that instrument of torture, the corset; will to a certainty, diminish the superfluous flushing of the face; which, we may remark, by the way of another parenthesis, is not so much the sign of high health as it is commonly supposed; but is closely allied to inflammatory diseases, and sudden death. Training will, in the same way, as certainly remove all unhealthy and unseemly corpulence, and will render plump and pretty the most meagre skeleton figure that ever was the victim of fretting, fidgets, and lowness of spirits. In a word, training is all-powerful in improving the figure and carriage of the body, in beautifying the worst and plainest complexion, and rendering it soft, delicate and transparent, like the natural healthy hue of opening youth, while, at the same time, it improves the health, strength, and the finest feelings of pleasurable enjoyment. To those beauties, in particular, who are beginning to lose their earlier admirers, we must strongly recommend it as capable of insuring them an additional ten, perhaps fifteen years of youth, making them "the cynosure of neighbouring eyes," and even of restoring at least five years of *vanished* charms. The process of training is, itself an amusement, communicating real enjoyment even in its prosecution—let our fair readers but make trial of it, and after a strict perseverance in the plan for six months, if they do not find themselves in every respect improved, let them set us down as arrant deceivers. But the whole process must be adopted and rigidly adhered to in all its details, or its effects may not be experienced.

PREVENTIVES OF PESTILENCE.

We derive the following sensible observations and advice from a work too little known, 'Webster (Noah) on Epidemic and Pestilential Diseases.' They show the general sameness of rules to prevent diseases of whatever kind or name.

"Having then arrived at the probable causes of the pestilential fevers which afflict the earth, we are prepared to consider the means of prevention.

"The first article under this head, is, the removal of all local causes of disease; such as every species of putrescible substances, which, in the process of putrefaction, emit a species of air highly unfriendly to health. It will be observed that I speak of *putrescible* substances; for flesh or vegetables, which have undergone the process of putrefaction, or of digestion in a healthy stomach, discharge little or none of the pernicious acid.

"Hence we observe that people in cities rely too much on cleaning streets to preserve public health. Experience proves that the utmost care in cleansing streets will not always prevent pestilence. The reason is obvious; most of the filth of streets consists of excrementitious matter from horses or oxen, which has undergone the process mentioned, and contains no septic acid, or very little. Hence the accumulation of dung in the farmer's yard, is not known to generate diseases.

"Various other substances, thrown into the streets of cities, are more pernicious; as green vegetables, the garbage of fish, lees of fermenting liquors, and many others, which, in hot weather, soon putrefy and discharge noxious air. Such substances, however, never ought to be thrown into the street in hot weather; they should be thrown into the ocean, into rivers of running water, or what is better still, *buried*, and that before putrefaction begins. If putrefaction is begun, they should be removed in covered vessels.

"All filthy substances should be removed from streets, both for the sake of decency and of health. If the pavements of streets could be covered with pure earth, it would greatly lessen the heat; but this is not practicable. The only effectual remedy is fresh running water—the only article that unites cleanliness with coolness. Nothing, in a city, can be an adequate substitute; for while it removes the causes of noxious vapours, and by cooling the sultry air of a city, prevents debility, it extricates a considerable quantity of new and wholesome air, from its own substance, and absorbs pernicious vapours.

"Streets should also be so constructed as to give the water a considerable velocity. The practice of leveling the surface of a city, is most pernicious. If possible, every street in a city should have a descent of fifteen or twenty degrees. Instead of leveling the earth, the police of a city should counteract even a natural level, by throwing the whole into artificial elevations; which give a brisker currency both to water and air.

"Cellars should be so constructed, as to retain no water; and often cleansed by scraping. If the surface of the cellar can be conveniently changed, by removing a few inches of the old earth and introducing that which is fresh, it would be a very salutary labour. Nothing imbibes and neutralizes infectious matter, more readily than fresh earth.

"The liberal use of water, in and about a house, cannot be too seriously recommended. Water absorbs all noxious matter that comes in contact with it in substance. Applied to floors, wooden, stone or brick walls, to clothes, to furniture, to back yards and streets; it is every where salutary in the summer months.

"All dead animals in a city or its vicinity, should be buried or

burnt; as cats, dogs and horses. The indecency alone of suffering their carcasses to putrefy before the eyes of mankind, ought to make it a strict article of police, to remove them. But they should be buried; no one should be permitted to offend the eyes or nostrils of a citizen. They are offensive to decency, to moral sentiments and to health. The ancient method of burning dead bodies was well calculated to destroy the poison; but in Atlantic America, burial is cheaper and equally effectual.

"Common sewers are often common nuisances. In cities, all filthy substances should be conveyed off, on the visible surface of the earth, unless sewers can be so constructed as to deposite, with certainty, all their contents in running water. Serious evils arise from putrid substances lodged in sewers, that are too level, and which serve as reservoirs instead of canals, accumulating putrescible matters, in places where their exhalations, by the influence of moisture, are doubled instead of being removed.

"In cities, where all filth is naturally cast by rains into the docks, it would be well that all wharves should be so constructed, as to present a smooth uniform front to the stream, and be extended into deep water. Mud, washed by the salt tides, and not mixed with putrescible matters, produces no inconvenience of health; but such matters, thrown into docks, bare at low water, and exposed to a hot sun, dissolve most rapidly, and generate morbid vapours. Many improvements are yet to be made in our sea-ports, which will lessen the accumulation of pernicious air.

"A great and most desirable article in a system for the preservation of health, is, the purifying of rooms from air which has been respired for a length of time. By experiment it is found that the air of rooms that have been slept in, is very insalubrious; and probably more so than the air of privies, which is found to contain less noxious air than was formerly supposed. See Encyclopedia, art. Atmosphere. Indeed, it is questionable whether there is any *necessary* connexion between offensive smells and insalubrity. Nature has kindly provided that dead feces should not be very pernicious to health; but the effluvia of living and fermenting bodies are to be avoided as rank poison. In this respect cleanliness is made essential to health."

REPORT OF THE PHILADELPHIA MEDICAL SOCIETY TO THE BOARD OF HEALTH, ON CHOLERA.

When we announced the fact of the Board of Health having applied for information on the subject of Cholera, to the

College of Physicians, and the Philadelphia Medical Society, we predicted that the opinions of these two bodies would be decidedly adverse to the doctrine of the contagiousness of the disease. The result has fully verified our predictions. The question of quarantine and other restrictions, the Medical Society has disposed of as follows:

In relation to the quarantine and other presumed sanatory restrictions, which have been adopted by the different governments of Europe, as safeguards against the Cholera, your Committee, after a careful and cautious examination into all the numerous facts connected with this branch of their inquiry, would simply state, without adverting to points, the consideration of which it has been thought unadvisable to enter upon in the present report, that all such measures have failed in effecting the grand object for which they were established. In proof of their inutility, we have the experience of the whole of that portion of Europe where the disease has prevailed. In Russia, Austria, Hungary, and by almost every other government, they have been unavailingly resorted to. By Prussia their effects were tried to the greatest possible extent; her rigorous measures being enforced by no less than sixty thousand of her choicest troops—the result is before the world. So far from proving salutary—quarantine and sanatory restrictions, as they are termed, in addition to the immense expenditure they necessarily involve, have, by suspending or interrupting commerce, and depriving of employment thousands of those who are directly or indirectly dependent upon it for their means of daily subsistence, rendered multitudes of individuals and families more favourable subjects of the disease.

As regards the supposed conveyance of Cholera by means of clothing and merchandise, the following facts, contained in the Report of the Central Board of Health of England, may be adduced as strong, if not conclusive testimony.

"There is no question, perhaps, in the whole range of sanatory police, on which so many and such irrefragable facts can be brought to bear as on this; derived, too, from the most authentic and recent sources.

"Seven hundred and thirty ships, loaded with flax and hemp, from infected ports in the Baltic, arrived at the different quarantine stations in this country, between the 1st of June and the 3d of December, 1831.

"Many vessels, also, arrived laden with wool and hides, yet not a single case of Cholera occurred on board any of these ships outside the Cattegate Sea, nor amongst the people employed in opening and airing these cargoes in the lazarettos.

"At the hemp and flax wharves, in St. Petersburgh, where several thousand tons of these articles arrived during the spring

and summer of this year, from places in the interior, where Cholera existed at the time of their departure for the capital, the persons employed in bracking or sorting, and who generally passed the night among the bales, did not suffer so early in the season, nor so severely, as other classes of the general population.

"The same observation holds good with respect to all the ropewalks of St. Petersburgh, and the imperial manufactory of linen cloth at Alexandrofsky, where all the yarn is spun from flax bracked and hackled on the spot."

The quarantine of persons has proved equally unavailing with that or merchandise. In evidence of this, the following, among numerous other facts, may be quoted.

1st. In very many villages and towns, to which the inhabitants of cities where the Cholera was prevailing, fled in crowds for shelter, and to which numbers of the sick were also conveyed, no new cases of the disease occurred.

2d. Cases of Cholera have rarely or never occurred in the lazarettos, where the crews of vessels, and individuals from infected parts, have been detained.

3d. In twenty of the most extensive hospitals for the reception of patients affected with Cholera, in India and Europe, no one of the medical attendants, nurses, and assistants, who were, day and night, in close contact with the sick, contracted the disease. In six other Cholera hospitals, of the physicians, nurses, and assistants, employed in constant attendance upon patients, and amounting in all to five hundred individuals, but eight cases of the disease occurred, and in the majority of these the attack was manifestly induced by irregularity, fatigue, or imprudent exposure to cold and damp.

4th. Multiplied instances are on record, where one member of a family has been attacked with Cholera and died, while the relatives and friends, who nursed the patient, even occupied the same bed at night, and performed the usual offices to the body after death, have remained free from the disease.

In our next number we shall probably give some extracts from the Report of the College of Physicians, to the same tenor as the above.

INFLUENCE OF THE SEASONS UPON MORALS.

In a recent number of "*Annales d' hygiene publique*," M. Quetelet, of Brussels, has presented some curious and interesting facts in relation to the influence of the seasons upon man. By

the following table, showing the number of crimes committed during each month, in France, for three years, he believes it to be proved that the disposition to crime is influenced by the seasons. He has added, for the sake of comparison, the number of insane during each month, admitted into the hospital at Charenton—the majority of crimes against persons appearing to him to depend upon a certain degree of mental alienation:

Months.	*Crimes against Property.*	*Crimes against Persons.*	*Number of Insane.*
January,	1095	282	37
February,	910	272	49
March,	968	335	53
April,	841	314	58
May,	844	381	44
June,	850	414	70
July,	828	379	61
August,	934	382	64
September,	896	355	47
October,	926	285	49
November,	961	301	35
December,	1152	547	52

From this table it will be perceived that the period which gives the greatest number of crimes against persons, corresponds very nearly with that during which the fewest crimes are committed against property, and is during the summer; while, on the contrary, the period when the smallest number of crimes are committed against persons, and the largest number against property, is in the winter. Thus, in the month of January, nearly four instances of crimes against property occur to one against persons, whilst, in the month of June, the proportion is only two to one. This difference may very readily be explained from the circumstances under which a large number of indolent and improvident persons are placed during the winter; the misery and want which are then experienced by these classes prompting them to commit depredations upon the property of others; whilst in summer, the causes referred to being in a great measure removed, we have less of this species of crime; but, the passions being the more readily excited, the crimes committed against persons become more numerous. A very remarkable coincidence is shown by the foregoing table, to exist throughout the year, between the disposition to crime against persons, and the predisposition to insanity—which, according to M. Quetelet, confirms the remark previously made, that the greater number of homicides, and crimes of a similar cast, occur during a state of mind bordering on insanity—a degree of insanity, however, let it be recollected, very generally produced by a violation on the part of the individual of the moral and physical laws of his being.

LONGEVITY.

The following instance of longevity mentioned in the St. Petersburgh Gazette, is almost incredible. There is living near Polosk, on the frontiers of Luthiania, an old man, named Demetrius Crabowski, who is now 168 years of age. This Russian Saturn has always led the humble but tranquil life of a shepherd, assisted by his two sons, the eldest of whom, Paul, is 120, and the youngest, Anatole, 97 years old. They all enjoy high consideration, as being the oldest family in the country.

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

The subscriber, assignee of Henry H. Porter, has transferred all the right, title, subscription list and Books of the JOURNAL OF HEALTH to SAMUEL COATE ATKINSON, who has become the Publisher and Proprietor of the same, and is fully authorized to collect all debts and dues owing to the said work. All letters and communications on the subject of said work are to be addressed in future to the said S. C. Atkinson.

S. POTTER,
Philadelphia, July 7, 1832. Assignee of H. H. Porter.

In assuming the duties of Publisher of the JOURNAL OF HEALTH, the subscriber presents his respects to its patrons, and trusts they will have no cause to regret the change which has taken place—His experience as publisher of the *Saturday Evening Post* and *Casket* for many years past, and his promptness in fulfilling all pledges made to the patrons of those publications is a sufficient guarantee that the *Journal of Health*, especially as regards its mechanical execution, will not deteriorate in his hands. By a liberal and judicious course in regard to its publication, with a number of improvements which will be adopted at the commencement of the 4th volume, he hopes not only to retain all the patronage now bestowed on the Journal of Health, but to obtain a large accession to the subscription list. It will ever be his ambition to *deserve* success, and he asks for the support of a liberal community so long only, as his exertions merit it.

The Agents who have had the Journal under their care will oblige the present proprietor by continuing their friendly aid on the same terms as heretofore, and also to act on the same terms as Agents for the Saturday Evening Post and Casket, where there are none already appointed.

The Agents of the *Post* and *Casket* are respectfully solicited to extend their aid in favour of the Journal of Health, in obtaining subscriptions, and collecting and remitting arrearages, &c. in their vicinity.

SAMUEL C. ATKINSON, Philadelphia.

*** Publishers of Newspapers are respectfully requested to notice the Journal, and the recent change, for which they will be entitled to a copy on sending one of their papers containing the notice *marked.*

Thomas Desilver, jr. Market street, has in press, and will speedily publish, a History of the *Epidemic Cholera*, and the means of preventing the disease; being a Report of the *College of Physicians* of Philadelphia, to the *Board of Health* of the same city: to which is added a full account of the *Symptoms* and *Seats* of the disease, and the *Method of Treatment* adopted in the different countries in which the Cholera has prevailed.—By John Bell, M. D. and D. F. Condie, M. D.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

Vol. III. Philadelphia, July 11, 1832. No. 21.

Upon the propriety of a removal to the country at the present season of the year, the advice of a physician is frequently requested. As a general rule, when the circumstances and avocations of an individual are such as to enable him to leave the city without injury to his own or family business, or without a dereliction of his duty to others, the most judicious course is undoubtedly to do so. The mere change of scene—the temporary relaxation from the cares of business, and the enjoyment of bodily exercise in fresh and pure air, render an excursion into the surrounding country, for a few weeks, during the intense heats of summer, in the highest degree favourable to health. But when, as is now the case, our neighbourhood is menaced with the visitation of an epidemical disease, the question is, whether removal into the country will ensure an escape from its attack, the same unqualified answer cannot with prudence be given.

The occurrence of epidemic cholera, it must be recollected, is not confined solely to cities—in the country individuals have been attacked by it as well as in the city. Flying from the latter, then, affords no certain security against the disease—while, on the other hand, in many situations in the country, should an attack be incurred, the chances of its fatal termination will be multiplied, from the much greater difficulty of procuring prompt

medical assistance. The expediency, therefore, of remaining in the city or removing into the country must depend entirely upon circumstances. Thus the inhabitants of a foul, illy ventilated and crowded city, located in an unhealthy district, would act wisely in deserting its contaminated atmosphere, and taking up their abode, during the prevalence of the epidemic, in some more healthy situation. Under such circumstances, removal to the country is to be strongly recommended.

Even in more healthy and better regulated cities, they who reside in narrow, damp and confined streets, or whose dwellings are in the immediate vicinity of any extensive collection of stagnant water, or are closely surrounded by the crowded and filthy hovels of the depraved and improvident classes of the community, would do well either to remove to a more eligible quarter of the city, or to retire for a season to some healthy situation in the country. But to those who possess all, or even a moderate share of the comforts of life; who reside in those parts of the city where no cause capable of producing disease exists—in a word, those in opulent or respectable circumstances, our advice would be—remain at home!—Observe the rules of temperance in eating and drinking; avoid all unnecessary exposure and fatigue; keep your mind free from alarm and anxiety; and you are even more secure from an attack of the prevailing disease, than you can be by attempting to fly before it. By remaining you have nothing to fear.

It unfortunately happens that the very classes who would be benefitted by a removal into the country, are prevented by the want of means, and they who need not remove are almost the only ones who do.

We should say then, that running off into the country to avoid the disease, is, as a general rule, improper. While it affords no greater degree of security, than is to be obtained by remaining, it has a decidedly injurious influence upon those who must continue stationary. To see the more respectable inhabitants of a city fleeing from it in crowds, and to know that the cause of this flight is the anticipation that it will shortly become smitten with a dreadful pestilential disease, the horrors of which they who remain behind must witness; in all probability themselves become its victims, produces precisely that depression of the mind —that state of gloom and fear, which are among the most powerful of the causes that give rise to an attack of the disease whose presence is so much dreaded, and cannot fail to increase the number of its victims, and in every way augment the evil. The poor—or those who have been suddenly deprived of their support by the general desertion of the city, being left without that kind assistance, that necessary support and commiseration, which they so much need when visited by sickness, and as it

were doomed to suffer and to die—a far greater amount of misery is entailed upon them than would be the case, were the citizens generally to remain at home and perform those offices of charity which are enjoined upon them by the religion they profess—even admitting the disease to rage as violently as it did in some of the cities of the North of Europe.

THE PLEASURES OF OLD AGE.

It is the observation of a fine writer, "that an old man, who is not a fool, is the happiest creature in the world;" for after having passed the noon of life in the hurry of business, he sits down in the evening in his easy chair, and, in social converse, or cheerful reflection, enjoys the pleasing retrospect of past occurrences. He recalls to memory all the events of his active life; he reacts, in imagination, the characters he was once fond to personate. Such are the natural and pleasing amusements of his solitary moments; and in his social hours happy in the enjoyment of the friends that revere and love him, and blest, perhaps, in the sweet attentions of a virtuous and affectionate family, he entertains himself and them with a narrative of past achievements, when his heart was fired by the love of virtue, animated by the pursuit of its attendant pleasures, and ardent for the acquisition of honourable fame. The various scenes, and trials, and adventures of days that can return no more, afford an inexhaustible fund of retrospective pleasure; a useful lesson for the youth who surround him. The studies of his early days, that now contribute their stores for the delight and ornament of his age; or the years of honest industry, by which he has gained the blessings of competency, these, in review, afford him inexpressible satisfaction. Or, perhaps, his life was more active still: his valour was distinguished in defence of the liberties of his country, or his voice raised in her councils to direct her onward in the road of happiness and peace. Now in his later days he relates with transport, in the presence of his friends or of his offspring, the victories he aided in achieving—the sufferings he endured, and those dangers that are now succeeded by the pleasures of repose. He points out each step by which his country arose to greatness, and every contest by which in the legislative halls improvements were wrung from the friends of ancient prejudices. His delighted audience participate in his satisfaction, and heighten it by their sympathy for the past, and their heartfelt happiness in the present.

The good old man is then sensible to pleasures that are peculiar to this period of his life. Secure in the harbour of tran-

quillity, he revolves in his mind, with unspeakable satisfaction, the adventures and labours of an active and useful life—the calamities and trials that are now no more, he reviews with the glow of gratitude and joy. So powerful, indeed, is the influence of contrast and security, that it may not improperly be termed the nurse of happiness—it teaches to know the value of our present enjoyments, by comparing them with the sufferings we once endured, and the misery from which we have happily escaped.

It is true, as Tully justly observes, that all men are not like the Scipio's and Fabii, who could recount cities captured, victories won, and triumphs obtained—that all have not the satisfaction of looking back upon a life spent in the service of their country—in enlarging the limits of human knowledge, or in the prosecution of some glorious work, communicating blessings to the whole family of man. But to days passed in virtue, decency and tranquillity, it is yet in the power of all to add the pleasures of a serene and peaceful old age. With respect to all the rational and healthy pleasures of existence, the consciousness of a good fame, the respect and commerce of virtuous men, and the contemplation of a happy immortality, these are enjoyments for which our capacities are enlarged and fitted by increase of years. While we are indulged by the divine permission as the reward of a temperate and prudent course of life, with the blessings of health, a wise man will consider the latter part of life as abounding with an equal amount of comforts and enjoyments as any previous portion of it. The recollection of a well spent youth, and the many active scenes of middle life, fills the mind with a pleasure not only the most elegant in itself, but pure, tranquil and unalloyed.

HINTS FOR THE SEASON.

The present hints are chiefly for the inhabitants of cities. Our friends in the country shall be attended to in due time:

"Another thing to be observed, in summer, and especially in time of pestilence, is, the guarding the body, but by all means, the head, from the direct rays of the sun. Nothing is more dangerous than the burning heat of a clear sun, in sultry weather. It often produces sudden death, by means of an apoplexy, instances of which are related under the year 1752, to have happened at Charleston; and the same is said to have taken place there, the summer past. In other cases, the effect is, what is called a stroke of the sun, 'coup de soleil,' which is not always fatal, but very dangerous.

"But the most general ill-effect of exposure to a hot sun, is, great debility, in consequence of the violent and unnatural excitement; and this effect is most to be found in the nervous system, when the heat has fallen directly on the head. Convalescents from bilious fevers have occasion to be particularly cautious, not to expose themselves to a hot sun; a relapse is the most certain consequence.

"The umbrella is an excellent invention; it would be still more excellent, if it could be improved, so as to render the shade more general, and completely interrupt the rays of the sun, without being rendered too heavy.

"In walking the streets of a city, in a clear hot day, the passenger will naturally seek the shady side. Of so much importance is it thought, in some hot countries, to shield the body from the rays of the sun, that very discerning men contend that narrow streets and high houses, in cities, contribute to the health of the citizens, by mitigating the heat. They suppose the obstruction of air a less evil, than a hot sun. Of this opinion was Lancicius.

"But this is to embrace one evil, in shunning another. It is to be regretted that the best mode of shielding man from a hot sun, is not adopted in cities. Wide streets, bordered with rows of trees, would be infinitely preferable to all the artificial shades that can be invented. Trees are the coolers given to us by nature. They make a pleasant shade—they imbibe the septic fluids, which impregnate the atmosphere of cities, and poison their inhabitants—they exhale pure air—they fan the earth, by creating or augmenting currents of air, with the vibratory movement of their leaves—they invite the feathered tribe to light on their branches, and with the music of their notes, to relieve the ear from the grating of rough, unnatural sounds, which stun the citizen.

"It has been objected to trees, that they increase the danger of fire, by obstructing the free use of engines. This objection is imaginary. Few cases would occur, where trees properly placed, could interfere with the operations of extinguishing fire; and in such cases, they might be leveled in a moment.

"It has also been objected, that trees obstruct the free circulation of air. This is not true. In calm summer weather, they very much increase a light breeze, by partly obstructing the upper current with their branches, and throwing more air below, thus augmenting the under current on the surface of the earth, where it is wanted. The leaves and branches also, by their gentle motion, agitate the air, preventing the ill effects of stagnation; and give velocity to the air that finds its way through their interstices.

"'The streets and public squares of a city, says St. Pierre, should be planted with great trees of various sorts. A city,

built of marble, would to me have a melancholy appearance, unless I could see in it trees and verdure.

"'Studies of Nature. 13.'

"Trees and all green vegetables diminish greatly the heat near the earth; and little do men in general think, how prejudicial to health is the operation of the extreme heat of cities.

"In the warm season, and especially in time of epidemic fevers, people should be doubly cautious not to expose their health by excessive fatigue. Labour should not be violent, and walking, moderate. In extreme heat, the natural excitement of the system, is usually too great; and a small addition to it throws the body into a state of debility which invites disease. Not only health, but life, is often suspended on the point of half an hour's exercise. Temperance in labour, bodily or mental, is as essential to good health, as in eating or drinking. The muscles and the nerves, those moving powers of the human body, if stimulated beyond a certain point, lose their excitability, beyond the possibility of recovery.

"The danger incurred by sedentary and studious men, during pestilence, from the debilitating effects of their occupation, is greatly increased. Want of due exercise is directly relaxing to the solids; while application of the mind is apt to over-excite the nerves and induce indirect debility. The extreme irritability of the nervous system, is obvious in a pestilential state of air. I experienced it most sensibly in the summer of 1795, during the fever in New York; and it is evidenced in the vertigo, so frequent at such times; in the seizure of many persons in the plague with apoplectic symptoms; and in the palsies and apoplexies which are greatly multiplied before or after the prevalence of a pestilence, and which in some places have become almost epidemic.

"During the rage of epidemic pestilence, also, the animal appetite should be indulged with moderation—excessive indulgence, which might have been sustained at other times, has often hurried the young and sprightly, to a premature grave. Nothing can be more dangerous, according to all medical writers on this subject.

"Celsus directs that in pestilence, persons should seek fresh air, travel, sail; or if these are not convenient, they should avoid fatigue, indigestion, cold, heat, excessive indulgence of the animal desires; especially, says the author, in a pestilence which is occasioned by southerly winds. Vol. I. 40, 41.

"These observations are not new; they are common and well known to medical men, and to all others of discernment. They are here inserted, because they may be, in this work, more generally read, than in medical books, which are opened only by professional men."

(Webster's *History of Epidemic and Pestilential Diseases, &c.*)

CHOLERA—BRANDY—WINE—SPICES.

The Epidemic Cholera, during the fifteen years it has now prevailed, has been the means of displaying, in a very striking manner, the importance of a regular and temperate course of life, and the true value of all those hygienic rules which we have endeavoured, through the pages of this journal, to enforce and illustrate. While they, who, in partaking of the rational pleasures of life, have never reduced the energies of their systems by indolence and luxury, or by the gratification of an artificial and morbid appetite for either food or drinks of an injurious quality, remain almost untouched by the pestilence which is hurrying thousands of those around them to their graves, the enervated constitutions of the intemperate of every class; of the squalid and the filthy, have but in very few instances withstood the malady.

When, therefore, we are asked for a sure preventive against an attack of cholera, we reply, speaking from the experience of every medical man in every place where the disease has yet appeared, strict temperance—perfect cleanliness—a proper alternation of exercise and repose, and free ventilation. This kind of advice, however, having in it nothing of novelty, and requiring the abandonment of vicious indulgences, which have been followed perhaps for years, and calling for the display of moral courage, and a certain degree of mental and bodily exertion, pleases but few. The mass of mankind would prefer some easier and more pleasing means of safety. Thus it has ever been in relation to the laws of hygiene. So long as danger is afar off, or approaches only with gradual steps, the counsels of prudence and the calls of duty are neglected; but, when it draws near—when a rapid destruction of life is threatened, fear seizes upon the mind, and the means of safety are eagerly demanded. But, instead of an entire change of life in those who have heretofore pursued an erroneous course (from which even then great advantage may be derived,) some substitute is eagerly sought for—some amulet or charm, some sovereign panacea, to fortify the system against the assaults of disease. And, surprising to say, there are men, who offer themselves to the public in the character of medical advisers, imprudent enough to recommend them. According to one, a little brandy and water is the best preventive—according to another, a glass or two of good old port or Maderia wine, while a third places all his reliance upon a plentiful use of aromatics or spices. As the subject is undoubtedly one of great importance, involving life itself, let us inquire in what manner these preventives are to effect the desired end. By restoring

tone to the stomach, it will be at once replied. But have we any facts to prove their efficacy? None, whatever, every one must reply who has made himself acquainted with the subject. The moderate drinker, whether of spirits or of wine, has been found but very little better off, when cholera prevails, than the actual drunkard—and, in those countries where spices are the most universally made use of, the disease has raged with even greater violence than in others. The fact is, that stimulating the stomach, whether by alcohol or spices, is not the proper means of restoring to it its lost tone, nor of increasing the energies of the system generally. Previously to, and during the prevalence of, epidemic cholera, the stomach is in a state evidently of irritation—it possesses a greater degree of irritability than during the ordinary states of health; this is proved by the uneasy feelings and sense of burning referred to that organ—by the clammy state of the mouth and throat, the diminished appetite, and increase of thirst. These symptoms are best controlled by abstinence from all stimulants, and from every thing calculated further to disturb the functions of the digestive apparatus. Ardent spirits, wine, and spices, are calculated to increase the irritation and irritability of the stomach, and not to allay it—they are calculated to bring on—not to ward off, an attack of the cholera.

The course to be pursued in regard to eating and drinking is a very plain one. Let the stomach be supplied with a sufficiency of plain, wholesome aliment—that which, while it affords ample nourishment to the system, is easy of digestion, and not irritating to the stomach. In regard to drinks, the more simple and bland they are, the better; happy now is that individual, who, accustomed to make use solely of water, feels it no privation to be debarred other drinks, which, if not absolutely injurious, are of very doubtful propriety.

We fear that some may commit an error in regard to eating, from the recommendation, which is in itself extremely judicious, —not to confine the diet to aliment deficient in nutritive properties, nor to make use of too slender a diet of even that which is wholesome. A few, we believe, have taken this as a recommendation to eat a great deal of the most nourishing food, and have suffered accordingly. Now, what is really meant is to eat enough, and no more than is sufficient, to support the system in entire health. The individual, therefore, who, under ordinary circumstances, finds that, with the amount of food he is accustomed to take every day he is in the enjoyment of health and strength, should confine himself now to the same quantity. To increase it, would be to follow the childish maxim, that if a certain quantity is good, more must be better. They who have pursued always a prudent and regular mode of living, are called upon to make no change

whatever: but where imprudences in diet, either in regard to quantity or quality, have been habitually committed, reformation is now loudly called—neither panacea nor spices will remove the danger of disease, if the same course of life is obstinately persisted in.

SUDDEN CHANGES IN LIVING.

At this particular juncture, when every one is inquiring what he is to do in order to avoid an attack of the cholera, should it make its appearance amongst us, and when every one, whether he be acquainted or not with the phenomena and nature of the disease, or the influence of external agents upon the human body, assumes to himself the right of advising his neighbour, it may not be improper to inquire into the correctness of the very popular recommendation, to make no sudden changes in the ordinary manner of living. We believe that by many this direction is given in good faith, from a full belief in its correctness in all cases; though we fear that it is reiterated by the mass as a plausible excuse for improper indulgences; for it is a fact that the calls of a vicious appetite are too often able even to control the fear of death.

So far as it regards persons who live prudent and strictly temperate lives, the recommendation is perfectly correct—all sudden changes in such persons are prejudicial; but in individuals differently situated the recommendation is perfectly absurd—the abandonment of their habits, without delay, being almost the only chance of safety which is left to such.

It is certain that if an individual has exhausted the energies of his system by an improper course of life, he will be in imminent danger should the cholera occur amongst us, whether he continues his ordinary mode of living or abandon it; but this constitutes no good reason why he should not change at once his improper habits—nor does it prove, that by so doing, his chance of escape will be less than if he continued in them. It is the impaired state of his health that constitutes his danger, and not the sudden change. If, however, he were to abandon, without delay, the plan of living by which his constitution has been injured, for one calculated to restore its health and vigour, so far from being a sufferer, he will be pursuing a course by which his chances of escape in the hour of danger will be, to a very great degree, augmented. Every hour, however, the complete change is delayed, the benefits to be anticipated from it will be lessened.

There is a large class of the community who act upon the

maxim that sudden changes are improper, in whom they are most loudly called for and who are liable to become the greatest sufferers by continuing in their present habits. These are individuals who, without being absolutely intemperate, make use of improper and too much food, and indulge too freely in the use of stimulating drinks. Their constitutions possess still, however, a degree of energy sufficient to guard them against disease, provided they were to restrict themselves, without delay, to a moderate amount of plain, wholesome aliment, and, in place of repeated potations of wine or brandy, confine themselves to water. A sudden change in their mode of living is almost the only means by which such persons can escape destruction when disease rages around them. Indeed, we should say that all who are in the habit of violating the laws of strict temperance, will find it to their advantage to assume, without delay, a more judicious plan of living. The erroneous supposition that no sudden change should be made, from evil to good, is calculated to lull many into a false security, who, had they received timely admonition, might have been saved from much suffering—perhaps from death.

[For the Journal of Health.

QUACKERY AND CHOLERA.

It is right that the attempts of empirics to take advantage of the fears of the weak and ignorant, in relation to the cholera, should be exposed. An advertisement, with the following head, has been distributed in this city:—" Prevention and Cure of Cholera Morbus, and *all other* Epidemics." This is certainly *modest*, and the public will not fail to appreciate the value of a medicine that cures the " cholera, and all other epidemics." The advertiser adds:—" It is not too much to say, that, were these medicines generally known and used, death, from *any* kind of disease, would be a *rare* occurrence." With this infallible remedy staring them in the face, people surely cannot choose to die from any other reason than that of pure obstinacy.

On the subject of references, the quack adds:—" To such, the proprietor would say, he prefers WALKING and TALKING certificates to any other." And " references will be given, on application, to as many, or *more* than the applicant will choose to call upon."

We have no doubt the quack is right in his assertion that he could furnish references to *more* of his patients than an applicant would choose to call upon, but we question whether they would be all among the " walking and talking" ones.

He caps the climax of absurdity, however, by offering to *insure* against the cholera, for the moderate sum of 37½ cents per week, as follows:—" Those in health, who have any fearful apprehensions of cholera, shall be *secured* against any attack of this disease at an expense of *thirty-seven and a half cents per week!!!*"

This is not only absurd, but wicked. It will be read, and no doubt believed, by many old ladies and very young children in this city; and the consequence will be, the transfer of sundry *'levies* and *fips* into the pockets of the doctor, and certain portions of *red* and *black pepper* and *tobacco*, (of which the Thompsonian medicines are compounded) into the bowels of his patients.

How far these substances may be conducive to health and comfort, the curious experimenter can easily ascertain. Z.

With equal impudence and disregard both of fact and of the lives of their fellow men do certain Panacea and Vermifuge manufacturers come forth before the public and advertise their nostrums as a preventive of cholera. All experience has abundantly shown that the use of various empirical compounds, or of any drug whatever taken with this view, has been eminently mischievous. A quack never had, and so long as he continues his trade, based as it necessarily is upon falsehood and deceit, never can have conscience. But why should editors of papers indorse his falsehoods? The blood of the deluded victim to such arts must rest in a degree on their heads.

MEANS OF PREVENTION OF CHOLERA.

In giving publicity to the following advice and directions, we do little more than repeat what we have already placed before our readers some months back, in former numbers of this journal. The importance of the subject, and the applicableness of the rules laid down, to the preservation of health at all seasons, will be our apology for this repetition. The extract is from the Report of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia to the Board of Health, on the Epidemic Cholera. The committee, to whom was referred the preparing of the report, consisted of Drs. James, Hewson, Hodge, Bell, Meigs, Coates, and La Roche. It is understood that this document is the production of Dr. Bell.

TRUE MEANS OF PREVENTION.

We are now to consider the means best calculated to prevent an extension of the disease, when once it has appeared. This is as much as can be accomplished by human powers. But al-

though we cannot alter or amend those conditions of the atmosphere, which give origin to, or are essentially connected with, the disease, nor change the localities in which it for the most part has its home, we can do a great deal towards depriving it of its horrors, by diminishing the exposure to those occasional and predisposing causes which are found to be so destructive. The sanitary regulations, promulgated and enforced with this view, are ranged under three heads. 1st. Those which regard the place; 2. Those in reference to habitation; and 3. Those relating to persons.

SANITARY REGULATIONS.

1. *Those which regard the place.*—The streets should be daily cleansed of all offal, dirt, and any impurities whatever, and the gutters frequently washed with running water. In no yard or open lots should any collections of dirt or animal or vegetable matters be allowed to remain, nor any ditch or pool be left unfilled with earth. No removable obstruction to a freer ventilation of courts, and alleys, and narrow streets, should be tolerated.

2. *Those which regard the habitation.*—The cellars should be kept dry, and the sinks cleaned out, or occasionally water, with a little chloride of lime, introduced into them. This substance should be sprinkled over the floors of those cellars more particularly, through which there is not a free current of air. Dissolved in water, with the addition of a little quicklime, it should be applied as a wash to the walls of cellars, closets, and rooms in which many persons work together. Free ventilation of the sitting and bed-rooms should be enjoined and practised—the floors dry-scrubbed, and, as well as the bedding and bed-clothes, aired at least once a day. Arrangements should be made for suitable ventilation and constant renewal of the air in all kinds of rooms or halls in which a number of persons congregate together, as in schools, churches, manufactories, &c. The air should be introduced in such a way as not to blow in a current upon the persons in the room, or to suddenly chill them after being heated.

No person should, if it can possibly be avoided, sleep in cellars or underground apartments of any kind, since experience has universally proved the greater liability of persons thus lodged to be seized with Cholera. Those who sleep on the ground, or on mud floors little raised from the surface, are in much greater danger than others sleeping in the second or third story of the same house. It was even remarked by Dr. Livingston in China, that, in some houses, persons who slept on beds sometimes escaped, whilst those who lay on the floors, on mats, and the

like, in the same apartment, had the disease in its worst form. Most of the cases which came under Dr. Livingston's care, were, at the time of attack, in small ill-ventilated apartments, commonly on the ground-floor.

A number of persons in the same room tends to deteriorate the air, and if they sleep in it, the chances of disease are greatly increased—hence crowded bed rooms are especially prejudicial.

3. *Those relating to persons.*—Personal cleanliness should be rigidly promoted by regular ablution or bathing in water of such a temperature as the feelings and experience of the individual teach him to be most agreeable and salutary. Frictions of the skin with a coarse towel or brush are particularly commendable, and in persons who have been suddenly chilled, or whose feet are habitually cold, these parts may be well rubbed with warm salt and water, or fine salt, or mustard flour. The clothing, and especially the covering of the feet, should be thick enough to protect the body against sudden changes of temperature, or from sudden cooling after being overheated. Flannel or domestic muslin will be found to be the safest for inner garments.

Exposure to the night air, or dews, should be avoided, and by persons unavoidably summoned abroad, clothing thicker than that usually worn in the day should be put on. After being suddenly chilled, or wet by rain, a warm bath will be advisable.

They whose business calls them abroad early in the morning, should not leave the house without eating something—such as a piece of stale bread, and some cold meat seasoned with a little mustard or pepper, and washed down with ginger tea, or the like, which can easily be prepared the preceding evening. The meals should be light, and repeated at suitable intervals, so that the body may never be oppressed by quantity or weakened by hunger. The food should be plain and easy of digestion, consisting of those meats, which general experience has shown to be nutritious and healthful. More reserve than ordinary will, however, be required in the use of smoked and salted meats, and especially of fat pork, the eating which, in some places, has been spoken of as an exciting cause of Cholera. Lobsters, and the like, are avowedly pernicious. All crude and indigestible vegetables, and unripe fruits ought to be carefully shunned. No material change of the beverages used in families, at morning and evening, will be required. To milk, so largely taken as food and drink, in different parts of the country, exception need not be taken. But this remark does not apply to sour milk (bonny-clabber) which ought during the prevalence of the Cholera to be entirely abstained from.

The increased predisposition to a fatal attack of Cholera, which has every where been found to result from habits of intemperance, ought to be a sufficient caution on this head. Those unaccustomed to the use of strong drinks should not by any kind of persuasion or false reasoning, have recourse to them—and the habitually intemperate, those prone to excess, cannot too carefully or speedily begin a reform. Abstinence from ardent spirits at all times desirable, is, in seasons of pestilential visitation still more necessary. A substitute will be found for alcoholic stimulation, in the use of ginger and cayenne, as condiments with food. In the case of the man who has desisted from dram-drinking, these articles may be taken at stated times; first, in the form of tea, the second, in the form of pills.

The poor and needy whose food is scanty, and of bad quality, such as watery vegetables, bad bread, &c., should be supplied with a better nutriment, in the form of good animal broth, good bread, a day old, and a suitable allowance of milk.

In Gallicia a better diet furnished to the lower classes, at the expense of the Austrian government, appeared to have contributed, as much as any other measure, to prevent the spreading of the disease. In a sugar manufactory at St. Petersburgh, where all the workmen had increased allowance of food, of a wholesome kind, no individual was attacked. It may indeed be said, that pure air and good substantial living, and a tranquil mind, will be found among the best preservatives against Cholera.

Temperance and regularity of life, in all respects, which are so serviceable in protecting against most diseases, are required to be observed in a peculiar degree to ward off an attack of Cholera.*

The Committee, in conclusion, deem it their duty to distinctly recommend that suitable measures be taken by the proper authorities, for the establishment of temporary hospitals in different parts of the city, for the reception of Cholera patients, who have not adequate lodging and accommodations at their own dwellings; and also, that provision be made for removing all those persons who live and sleep in cellars, or other close, damp, and

* The following is an illustration of what care and temperance can perform in the sickly climate of India, in the way of preserving Europeans from the attacks of Cholera :—

"Two bodies of men, one amounting to 300, the other to 100 persons, were located in adjoining situations when the Cholera appeared. The smaller body immediately determined to live temperately, and by avoiding the night air, and the other predisposing circumstances, which were obvious, to endeavor to escape the distemper. The plan succeeded so well, that only one individual was seized, of the one hundred. The larger body adopted no precaution. They lived in their usual way, and one-tenth of their whole number perished."—(Kennedy, p. 90, 91.)

ill-ventilated rooms in streets, alleys or courts, in which the disease once showing itself would, without some such precautionary measures, commit dreadful ravages. Immediate specification may be made of a great number of under-ground rooms, used for lodging and sleeping, in the row of buildings between Front and Water streets, and of cellars in various parts of the city, in which men both work and sleep, Not only are the tenants of such rooms more prone to the disease, but they are also less advantageously circumstanced for recovering from its attacks; nor can they be properly attended by physicians, nurses and friends, without detriment, and even danger to these latter, who would then be respiring a damp, close and impure air, and be liable to have their bodies suddenly chilled, after passing from the outer warm air into such a medium.

BELL AND CONDIE ON CHOLERA.

The work by Drs. Bell and Condie on Cholera, advertised by T. Desilver, Jr. Market street, will enable American physicians to learn what has been the practice pursued in the treatment of this disease in the different countries in which it has prevailed. In the numerous essays and books on the subject, the reader is merely told of the treatment adopted by the writer, or in this or that hospital. He is not enlightened by all the previous experience of other practitioners, in former seasons or other countries. Hence, to acquire the information contained in the present small volume, it would be necessary to peruse, probably, fifty different works, and even then there would be no small difficulty in separating the essential facts from extraneous matter.

The report of the College of Physicians, an extract of which is given in our preceding pages, forms the introduction to the work of Drs. Bell and Condie. The former contains nearly all that would interest the general reader and public at large. The latter is more especially intended for the professional man, who will at once become acquainted with all the remedial means employed in cholera, and be ready to make the most judicious selection, so as to adapt them to the particular stage of the disease. The close connexion between epidemic cholera on the one side, and our common cholera morbus of adults, and cholera infantum, bilious cholic, and the cold stage of intermittent fever on the other, is pointed out by the authors of the work before us. Some curious information respecting former pestilences, especially of the great plague in the early part of the 14th century, is also given in the first

chapter of this work—in illustration of the nature and spread of epidemic diseases.

LONGEVITY.

The Raleigh Register states that there is a "centenarian in every 2425 persons throughout the state," and then it asks—"what will foreigners, who deny American longevity, say to this?"

Caution.—Such were the evidently pestiferous effects of drinking ardent spirits during the prevalence of the Epidemic Cholera at Montreal, that the Taverns and Grog-shops were ordered to be closed by the authorities. In Quebec the sale of ardent spirits in less quantities than two gallons is interdicted on the recommendation of the Board of Health, on account of the Cholera. Shall these lessons—shall the whole experience, of a similar tenor, of Europe, be lost on the people of the United States in their preventive measures against this dire disease?

Our readers will have seen, by the announcement in our last number, that Mr. Atkinson has become the proprietor and publisher of the Journal of Health. As this measure is one which meets with the entire consent of the Editors, it will be an additional incentive to them for renewed exertions to sustain the interest of this work. It will be their aim to impart as much variety to its pages as is consistent with adherence to their original plan. Hence they will borrow freely from Travels, Biography, Sketches of character, &c. &c.; enlist on suitable occasions in their cause Popular Science and maxims of Domestic Economy. Education, both physical and moral, as laying, according as it is well or ill conducted, a foundation for future happiness or misery, comes strictly within their province: Nor shall rational amusement, and the means of being amused, fail to receive a due share of attention. Publishers and Editors, acting in concert and with a steady aim to the instruction and entertainment of the public, cannot, we are persuaded, fail to give satisfaction.

Is published by *Thomas Desilver*, jr. and for sale, at his book store, 247, Market street, and at the principal booksellers in the city, A History of the *Epidemic Cholera*, and the means of preventing the disease; being a Report of the *College of Physicians* of Philadelphia, to the *Board of Health* of the same city: to which is added a full account of the *Symptoms* and *Seats* of the disease, and the *Method of Treatment* adopted in the different countries in which the Cholera has prevailed. —By John Bell, M. D. and D. F. Condie, M. D.

The Health Almanac is published, and for sale to the trade and others, by Key, Mielke & Biddle.

THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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The events which have transpired in so many other and remote countries—those which are now of daily occurrence in our own land—are filled with more solemn warning than even the woes threatened by another Isaiah or Jeremiah, were such inspired personages once more sent abroad to admonish the people of their enormities, and to call them back, under dreadful penalties, to order and virtue. The denunciation by the former of these prophets—"*Wo to the crown of pride, to the drunkards*"—"*Wo to them that are mighty to drink wine,*" is now in course of fulfilment. The pestilence which has scourged Asia, destroying millions, and carried off from Europe tens of thousands of her inhabitants, has now appeared on this continent, with all the fearful and terrific traits, and deadly effect, which have hitherto ditinguished it. We, at this time, and in this place, will not venture an opinion that the progress of pestilence is a special providence—the direct infliction of punishment on the sinful of the earth; but every individual in the community is free to proclaim, as a matter of history, full of solemn warning, weighing down, perhaps, still more his own wounded spirit, that the drunkard, the dissolute, the uncleanly—those regardless of the laws of God and the nobler feelings of man, have been, and continue to be in large numbers, the victims of the devastating cholera. Whether on the banks of the Ganges and the Indies, or the Wolga and the Neva—whe-

ther on the Danube or the Seine, the Thames or the St. Lawrence, the same dread selection has been uniformly made of the intemperate—not merely the drunkard, but the free drinker, for the first and chief victims to this disease. It matters not under what name goes the distilled liquor drunk by the various people who have been destroyed by cholera. Arrack, vodky, brandy, gin, whiskey—all and each are now admitted to be the strongest allies, the most ready inviters, of this scourge. Nor is this a new fact in the history of epidemical and pestilential diseases. Its force has indeed been hitherto more successfully masked by sophistry, and been misunderstood through ignorance. But for a long time, and oft, has its truth been proclaimed. Danger in the wine-cup—sickness and death in the still—has been the language held of late years, in nearly every section of our country. If it has not reached every house, and carried conviction to every inhabitant, let those who have scoffed at Temperance Societies, who have ridiculed temperance reforms, who have sometimes for the love of opposition, sometimes from wilful ignorance, at times from sordid interest, insisted on the necessity of a people having strong drink, on the necessity of a moderate quantity of ardent spirits after labour and fatigue, or to keep up the body to its natural tone, in order to ward off disease;—let those persons, we say, answer, and tell why it was, and by what means, this all-important knowledge of the uniformly deleterious effects of ardent spirits was kept back from so many of their fellow-citizens, and prevented from reaching every nook and corner of the land. Are the ministers of the gospel, are the judges and expounders of our laws, are our legislators or framers of our laws, are our learned men, who aim at giving a direction to public sentiment, are our teachers in schools and colleges, are our elders and matrons, entirely guiltless in this matter? Have they, either by their example or their opinion, in aught tended to keep up the too prevalent delusion, that ardent spirits, in any quantity, under any circumstances of life and situation, is a fit drink for daily or habitual use. If they have, let them now behold, in the history and statistics of cholera, the mournful commentary on their doctrine, the awfully practical refutation of all their sophisms. Diseases without number—insanity, apoplexy, fevers of the worst grade, dyspepsy in all its harassing varieties, deforming discolorations and eruptions of the skin, rheumatism, &c., were pointed out again and again as common effects of the use of strong drinks. The facts were as clear as any of the most familiar daily occurrence—but the conclusion from them was either denied, or perverted from its true meaning. At length the Cholera came—and the evasions of the drunkard, and of the drunkard's advocates, were done away with—silenced, in a manner, and by arguments which could no longer be mistaken.—It

was by the death of the drunkard and the alarm of the survivor.

Shall it be said that the laws of hygiene, the maxims of dietetics of long and tried value, must be waived in the case of cholera—and that the rules for its prevention are new and peculiar, exceptions to the common line of conduct, as it is thought to be to the diseases which have hitherto afflicted mankind? So far from this being true, we have the most positive and conclusive evidence to show that every measure of wise precaution, sanctioned by time and experience, for the preservation of health and avoidance of disease is strictly applicable to the present emergency. Plain and nutritive diet, due proportion of animal and vegetable food; cleanliness, by bathing and frictions of the skin; clothing calculated to keep up an equable temperature of the body; abstinence from intoxicating drinks; exercise in a pure air; and equanimity of mind—are the means which, in this journal, we have unceasingly indicated as the best means of preserving bodily health and vigour, in all seasons of the year; and of warding off the attacks of epidemical diseases. These means are now universally admitted to be the most effectual preservatives against cholera. Ardent spirits, we contended, was always detrimental when used as drink, or with a view to prevent disease, or to give additional powers of enduring fatigue. Our opinions in this respect, though sustained by a large body of evidence, were disputed, and the great and little vulgar took pains to show that the people required some such stimulus. The cholera comes—and every affirmation of ours, and of the true advocates of temperance, is confirmed to a tittle. If ardent spirits, under any circumstance, had the virtues attributed to them by their friends, this was the time to show it—when all that could impart healthful energy to the system was eagerly sought after. But vain was the appeal to the alcoholic school for maxims for the use of the people. For the first time they were compelled to admit that the use of distilled liquors was an abuse full of danger, carrying disease and death in its train. The East Indian, the Persian, the Russian, the German, the Frenchman, the Briton, the Canadian, the American,—Indian and African, all felt—all acknowledged, the increased proneness to an attack of cholera, the diminished chances of recovery from it, by the use of ardent spirits. The stomachic bitter, the morning dram, the spiritous cordial, all lost that reputation in the eyes of the multitude which they had always lost in the eyes of discerning and humane men. The strong arm of government was often interposed to prevent the sale of these liquors; taverns were closed, and the retailing of drams forbidden. To use brandy as a drink during the prevalence of cholera, say German accounts, is death; and brandy has been thought by some the best of distilled liquors. In

Canada the grog-shops and taverns were closed—and the pernicious effect of the use of ardent spirits emphatically dwelt on. But the other day, in New York, similar restrictive measures have been recommended, from a deep conviction of the terrible ravages which cholera has committed, and is committing, on the drunkard, and the drinker of such liquors. After great fatigue, or after getting wet, a dram, or a glass of spirits and water, was thought useful, if not necessary. We have repeatedly shown the fallacy and bad consequences of this belief, and stated our conviction, founded on much experience of the facts of the case, that rest, and a light repast, often a simple warm drink, as of gruel, was all that ought to be taken. What is the doctrine forced upon people by the ravages of the cholera? We have it in a letter addressed the other day, on respectable medical authority, to the chief engineer of the fire department in New York:—

"During the exertions at the fire, the thirst may be allayed by drinking warm tea—and particular caution should be taken, *when much fatigued by labour and want of sleep, to abstain from drinking ardent spirits and eating a hearty meal.* Abstinence and rest will be found the great preservatives, with care to avoid being chilled." If the fireman gets wet, what is he advised to do?—"To strip himself and go to bed—cover himself comfortably—abstain from taking any more than *a little warm gruel or barley-water*—and rest in bed during the following day."

If our readers will compare this advice with that which we gave our own firemen a year ago, they will see that the cholera does not elicit new truths, or establish new laws of hygiene, but confirms more forcibly than heretofore those of already admitted efficacy.

We are not called upon, in these times of pestilential visitation, or of the dread of such visitation, to forego the use of the common articles of food—meats, bread, and vegetables—we are not called on to desist from the use of water as a beverage—nor from that of milk as food and drink. The doubtful alone is excluded;—such as vegetable substances which possess little nutriment—cabbages, cucumbers, &c., green fruits, and the like; in fine, all those articles which the prudent and the observing have always considered to be of doubtful, if not decidedly injurious, tendency.

There is not a single principle in the sanitary code for which we have contended in the volumes of this Journal, which has not been amply and triumphantly confirmed by the universal experience of every people on whom the cholera has committed its ravages. There is not a practice which we have denounced as prejudicial to health, and as inviting disease, which has not, in a remarkable manner, been found to predispose to, or directly bring

on, an attack of cholera. And why are our opinions thus accurate? Because, divesting ourselves of a spirit of party or of sect, flattering no appetite or dominant interest, we have been content to send abroad facts and lessons sanctioned by the experience of all ages and people, as most conducive to mental and bodily health, well regulated feelings and good morals. Strong in these facts and lessons, let our people who desire to escape the dire cholera, avoid the application of the "wo" of the prophets of old to them.

EFFECTS OF A BELIEF IN CONTAGION.

They who cry out caution! caution! the cholera may be contagious after all, and it is better to take measures founded upon a belief that it is so, than to run the risk of too free an intercourse with the sick, or with individuals coming from infected districts, preach a doctrine more dreadful far in its consequences than the epidemic itself. It is unnecessary to refer to the horrid scenes which have resulted from the desertion of the sick in cities where the plague has prevailed; or to recur to those which nearer home have been exhibited during the prevalence of the yellow fever. The following, which we have translated from Dr. Houselle's communication, in reference to epidemic cholera as it appeared in Elbing, will exhibit in striking colours the effects which are likely to result from the measures, for which some call so loudly.

"Whenever," remarks the doctor, "all communication was interdicted with the inhabitants of a dwelling in which a case of the disease had occurred, scarcely an hour had elapsed before twenty to thirty persons in the immediate neighbourhood were found to apply for medical aid—showing strongly the influence of fear excited by the seclusion to which persons labouring under the epidemic, or suspected to have been in contact with the sick, were subjected. The system of seclusion not only, however, augmented the number of cases, but it was found to deaden all the moral feelings and every principle of humanity. The slightest deviation from health in an individual was the signal for deserting him by his nearest relatives—no one was willing to remain near him from the dread of contagion, and the horrid anticipation of being shut out, if attacked, from all intercourse with their fellow-men. Servants and apprentices, attacked with cholera, have been cruelly cast forth at night from their masters' houses, and have been left to die in the open streets. All business in the neighbourhoods where the disease appeared was suspended—in consequence labourers and mechanics were thrown

out of employment, and unable to procure proper food and other necessaries, and passing their time, in common with numbers of idle apprentices, in dissipation, have afforded fresh food for the disease.

"No one for a moment can contemplate the condition of the poor beings, who were shut up in their houses to prevent the spread of the supposed contagion, without his heart bleeding for their sufferings. Twenty long days were they obliged to pass, deprived, in very many instances, of the kind services of either friend or relative—in dwellings often damp and miserable in the extreme—without occupation or proper nourishment. Looked upon by their fellows as objects of horror, in whose presence dwelt pestilence and death, and forced to endure all the pangs of disease without any one to comfort, to pity, or to assist them. Can we blame the poor, who, in the dread of such a species of cruel imprisonment, concealed the fact when the disease appeared amongst them? Can we be surprised that, in the dwellings thus closed up, new cases of the disease should have so frequently occurred?"

"It is," adds Dr. H., "my decided conviction, as well as that of my colleagues, that the intensity of the epidemic in this place, (Elbing) increased just in proportion to the strictness with which measures for the seclusion of the sick were carried into effect."

MAXIMS FOR THE SEASON.

Keep yourself as cool as possible.—Although we are well aware, that by many, this direction will be treated with ridicule, it constitutes, nevertheless, one of the chief means for preserving health during the warm season. It does not imply that you are to live in an ice-house, or to seek for any artificial refrigerant, but simply, to avoid all unnecessary excitement whether moral or physical.

Let your clothing be light and loose.—At the same time that this maxim is adhered to, care must be taken, whenever any sudden reduction of temperate occurs, to adapt the clothing to this change; hence, a warmer dress will be required early in the morning and late at night, than during the middle of the day.

When in a state of profuse perspiration, never throw off a portion of your clothing.—The best plan in such cases is to retire immediately within doors, and change the damp clothes for others perfectly dry, the whole surface of the body being previously well rubbed with a towel. The same precaution is pro-

per when you have been accidentally wet by a shower of rain.

Eat moderately of plain wholesome food.—The system demands a much less amount of food in summer than in winter—the sensation of hunger or emptiness should, however, always be avoided; but let whatever aliment is taken be plain, light and easy of digestion. While the ordinary condiments, in moderation, are not improper, stimulating the stomach by food highly seasoned is invariably injurious. It is not true that spices communicate tone to the digestive organs.

Fresh meat, in moderation, is to be preferred in warm weather, to that which is salted, dried or smoked.—It is perfectly absurd to suppose, as some do, that the latter constitutes a more wholesome food in summer than fresh meat. On the contrary, salted, dried, and smoked meats, are less nutritious, more stimulating, and less easy of digestion than fresh meat, consequently, they have a greater tendency to excite and disturb the stomach.

Avoid all unripe, flatulent and acid fruits, and such as are difficult of digestion.—A large number of the bowel complaints, fevers, and choleras, which occur in the warm season, may be attributed to a neglect of this rule. Immoderate eating of any kind of fruit, it may be proper to observe, is injurious to the stomach.

Drink nothing but water.—The experience of the last fifteen years, in almost every climate, and at every season of the year, has shown incontestibly that the water drinker is far less liable to disease of every kind, and especially of the stomach and bowels, than he who makes use of either distilled or fermented liquors. The epidemic cholera, while it has consigned millions of the latter to the grave, has attacked but few who habitually refrain from the use of all intoxicating drinks. During the warm season, and especially during the present summer and autumn, they who wish to avoid an attack of the cholera, will act wisely in making water, toast-water, or an infusion of the slightly aromatic herbs their common drink.

Never drink large draughts of cold water, especially when in a profuse perspiration or when exhausted by fatigue.—Hydrant or river water, that has stood a short time after it has been drawn, drank in moderation, will never produce any inconvenience; and all should recollect, that a small quantity of water leisurely swallowed is far more effectual in allaying thirst, than large draughts hastily swallowed.

Rise early in the morning.—By rising during the summer with the sun, we gain two or more hours, at the most pleasant part of the day, and when exercise and labour can be the most advantageously pursued, while we avoid spending so much time

exposed to the enervating influence of a warm bed and a confined atmosphere.

Never walk in the sun without an umbrella.—The shade of an umbrella is a very great protection against the injury which is so liable to result from exposure to the direct rays of the sun. We have often thought that all mechanics who are obliged to labour in the open air would be immense gainers in comfort and in health, were they guarded, in summer, from the sun by an awning or a shed of boards. The additional trouble and expense the erection of such a screen would create would be amply repaid by its good effects.

If possible, remain within doors, during the middle of the day, from twelve to three o'clock.—This maxim might be followed by a larger number of persons than would at first be supposed. Early rising and a diminution of secular holydays, spent too often in dissipation and in incurring diseases which cause the loss of many other days, would make up, to the lower class of mechanics who work in the open air, the time lost by leaving work during the period specified.

When fatigued, or in a profuse perspiration, never lie down upon the ground, or fall asleep in the open air.—By such imprudence the body becomes always more or less chilled, and diseases of a very dangerous character are often produced.

Keep the body strictly clean by frequent bathing.—They who neglect this maxim, deprive themselves of a very powerful safeguard to health, and a source of real enjoyment.

Never use a cold bath when the body is in a state of exhaustion from fatigue or perspiration. Without entering into a consideration of all the rules to be observed in bathing, we think it important to urge upon our readers the foregoing precautions. Many persons who would hesitate to wet their lips with cold water, plunge their bodies fearlessly into the river, or a cold bath, at a time when from the energies of the system being reduced, the most serious injury is to be apprehended from the chill which invariably results.

Never sleep in crowded apartments, nor with a draft of air blowing upon the bed. During sleep the system is always more liable to suffer from morbific causes than when awake; hence the impure and confined air of a crowded chamber, and the chill produced by a current of air is far more deleterious during the night than they would be during the day. We wish it to be understood, however, that while we deprecate in the strongest terms, the habit of sleeping exposed to a draft of air, we at the same time insist upon the necessity of a free ventilation of the bed-chamber, which can readily be effected, particularly when the room is sufficiently spacious, and properly constructed, without any infringement of the maxim we have laid down.

AMATEUR CHOLERA DOCTORS.

At the present moment, when the minds of the whole community are alarmed by the anticipation of an evil which they are told is shortly to overtake them—when every trifling ailment, or unusual sensation in the stomach, is converted by the imagination into the premonitory symptoms of a most rapid and fatal disorder, the guardians of the public health cannot too frequently nor too loudly warn all classes of the danger they incur by an imprudent resort to medicines, whether procured under their proper names, from the shop of the apothecary, or variously mixed, compounded, and disguised, in the secret laboratory of the professed empiric.

Though we have for many years back been disgusted with the impudence and insolence of domestic as well as public quacks—though we have witnessed numerous instances, in our time, of the destruction of health and of life, by the ill-timed interference and misapplied remedies of the first, and by the vaunted panaceas, balsams, tonic mixtures, and pure vegetable elixirs, of the last, yet we must confess that at no period have we known quackery, of every species, prevail to a greater extent than at the present.

That the regular quack should take advantage of the excited state of the public mind, to rob the ignorant of their money and their health, is not at all surprising—it is merely labouring in his vocation; but he constitutes only a part of the nuisance which has within a few weeks increased amongst us. The amateur physician, who formerly confined his practice to his own family, or exerted his *skill* only on some poor servant or dependent, now runs from house to house, giving his advice, and urging upon all, his remedies, either for the prevention or cure of a disease, the very nature and symptoms of which he tacitly confesses he is ignorant of.

Many, too many, really well-meaning and humane individuals, are at this very moment circulating among the fearful and credulous, prescriptions for the cure of cholera, which, if taken, are of a character well adapted to increase the spread as well as the mortality of the disease, should we be visited by it. We meet, indeed, with scarcely any one who is not supplied with a *certain cure* for cholera that has been recommended to him by a friend or neighbour. Some of these "cures" are said to have performed wonders, in the hands of a certain physician, in Asia, Europe, Africa, or America. The ample details which we possess of the different remedies that have been employed in various countries in the treatment of the epidemic, and of their effects,

are silent, it is true, in regard to these wonder-working *cures*—but then Mr. or Mrs. A. or B., living in Chesnut, Arch, or Race street, attests to the fact, and that is sufficient—testimony in favour of quack remedies, or the prescriptions of amateur physicians, are not to be tested by the strict rules of evidence.

There is a degree of self-confidence about these unprofessional cholera doctors, which is really unsufferable. They very boldly accuse the medical profession of being ignorant of the nature and proper treatment of the disease, and assure the public that it is on this account alone they offer their services to those who may be in danger of suffering from the malady. They conceive, such are their very words, that the cause of humanity demands this extraordinary step. Ask these humane advisers where they acquired that knowledge in relation to the present epidemic, of which our physicians are presumed to be wanting—and the only sources to which they can refer are, perhaps, the voluntary surmises of some newspaper scribbler, or the valuable communication of a common sailor, who was attacked with the disease during his last India voyage. If our physicians are unable to understand the disease, and to devise a plan for its treatment, with their knowlege of the principles of medicine, and all the facts that the experience of fifteen years has accumulated in reference to it, the public are in a sad condition, when they have to trust their lives, should it come amongst us, to men without the former, and incapable of making use of the latter.

It should be recollected that epidemic cholera is, of all diseases, the one in the treatment of which quackery and ignorance will be the least able to decieve the public. It is an affection of such rapid progress, that but little time is allowed for the employment of the proper remedies. In the words of one who has attentively studied the disease in the hospitals of India, "the loss of a few hours, after the attack, is often the loss of life." The period during which medical treatment can be expected to do any good, is, at least, much too short to permit the common plan of trying the effects of remedies advised by the ignorant, before those which are adapted to the case are had recourse to, being practised with safety. The disease is of too violent a character, in the majority of instances, to expect a favourable result, when an active and judicious treatment has not been adopted from the very first. In the epidemic cholera, it can never with propriety be said, that if a given prescription do no good, it can do no harm. An inert, equally with an improper practice, is destructive of the patient's life.

We trust that these circumstances will be duly considered by every one, but especially by such as may feel themselves tempted to proffer their advice in relation to the prevention and cure of cholera, while they are as ignorant of the very symptoms of

the disease as they are of all medical subjects; that the amateur doctor will either resign into the hands of competent medical attendants, the treatment of those attacked, or assume to himself all the awful responsibility consequent upon his ill-judged interference.

WINE DRINKING IN FRANCE.

There is a sensible article, under the above head, in the Genius of Temperance for July 18. We shall introduce our own observations on this subject by prefixing the opening paragraph. In it we are told that "the number of gallons of wine consumed in France in the year 1831, as stated by an English paper, on authentic documents, was 519,135,091 gallons! A Paris letter writer says, 'there are, perhaps, 100,000 souls in Paris that are intoxicated, more or less, once a week.' This shows what is done with the five hundred millions of gallons of wine." The testimony of Dr. Hewitt, who visited France on purpose to ascertain the habits of the people in this respect, is given, to show that 'they are burnt up with wine.'

Out of these facts has arisen a question more of curiosity than of practical value—viz: Whether the French people, who thus suffer from intemperance, use the mild wine of the country, or prepare it with brandy, as is done for the purpose of exporting it? We can ourselves answer the question—by saying that the people of France and Southern Germany, and Italy, do both; they drink the mild wine and the brandied wine, and, on occasions, at first, sparingly, and after a time more freely, the brandy itself. And what does this prove? Why, surely, what we have already insisted on in the pages of this Journal, and elsewhere—more especially in the Anniversary Address of the Pennsylvania Temperance Society for 1831—that there is a close alliance between wine drinking and brandy drinking, and that he who begins with a weak wine, is seldom content, if he has it in his power, until he drinks a stronger wine, and so on, taking his degrees in drinking, until, before he is aware of it, he is a regularly dubbed and admitted drunkard.

There is a great deal of misconception of the habits of the people of vine-growing countries. When, two years ago, we attempted to correct some of the prevalent errors on this subject, we were listened to with evident mistrust in the accuracy of our statements, although they were, in part, the result of personal observation, and partly obtained from official documents. We showed that diseases, of great number and violence, were recorded, in the French hospitals, as the direct effect of the 'abuse of wine.' We

might have added a few incidents, coming directly under our own eyes, as illustrative of the wine-drinking practices of the French people. We have often seen crowds of the inhabitants of Paris returning from outside the walls, or barriers, as they are called, of a Sunday evening, after they had been freely indulging themselves in drinking wine. The reason they had gone out of the city to drink, was on account of the wine being so much cheaper than that which had been subjected to the high duty which is imposed on it before it can be introduced within the walls. On these occasions we have often seen many persons reeling along intoxicated, and some beastly drunk, and a large number more loud and noisy in the expression of their mirth than might seem suitable to the day, or to good breeding and social order.

We well remember the jeopardy in which we were placed, on our return to Paris from Versailles, where we had been to witness the festivities attendant on the celebration of the fete of St. Louis, the titular saint of the then king of France. Our danger was from the drunkenness of our coachman, who gave his horses both whip and reins, dashing along at full gallop, and regardless both of the remonstrances of the passengers and of any other vehicle in his way. Ere long he ran us up between a heavy wagon and a hackney-coach; the concussion with the former would have caused an upset, but for the opportune position of the latter, which served to right us. A female, riding on the top of our carriage, was thrown on the road by the shock; but she fortunately received no material injury. Naturally vexed at the misconduct of their driver, some of the passengers, amongst whom was the late Dr. Seybert, of this city, preferred a complaint against him, at the office to which the coach belonged. Our readers will hardly guess what was the atonement made to the injured female? It was alleged by the owners of the coach, that although the coachman drove too hard, yet that the woman would not have fallen off if she had not been a little disguised, or slightly muddled, with drinking—"*un peu prise.*" And what was the proof of her being in liquor? Why, forsooth, because, after being thrown from the top of a coach, with some force on the ground, she was so affected by the shock as to be for a time giddy, and sick at her stomach, and to throw up its contents, including some wine which she had drunk. We do not relate this little incident to the disparagement of French morals or gallantry, but to show that a drunken coachman excited no animadversion from his employers—and that for a female to drink too much wine, was not looked upon as any unusual or extraordinary thing—since the fact was so readily assumed, in this case, to shield the coachman from punishment.

At the period when we were in Paris, and things have not, in this respect, been improved since, our eyes frequently lighted on

accounts of the trials of soldiers for insubordination and other misconduct, and very commonly the cause was stated to be intoxication. The fact is, that soldiers off duty will adjourn to a *cabaret*, or petty tavern, call for a bottle of wine, experience just stimulation enough from it to make them call for another, and perhaps yet another, and before they part they must pledge each other in a glass or two of *eau de vie*, (brandy)—Of the mood in which they are by this time, any one may judge—and also their readiness to engage, without much persuasion, in a fresh bout, with other of their non-military friends.

At the last anniversary meeting of the Pennsylvania Temperance Society, it was asserted by one of the speakers, whose office led him to such inquiries, and whose known cautious character would be a guaranty of the correctness of his assertions, that a large proportion of the crimes in France were the direct effect of intoxication, or the use of intoxicating liquors.

We have yet a few words for the venders and *gullible* buyers and drinkers of *pure* port wine, which we must defer to another time.

CHARACTER OF A TRUE PHYSICIAN.

The true physician will not seek to cure diseases by trick, but by skill; not by the magical agency of a nostrum, or specific, but by the judicious use of those means which the experience of former times has placed in his hands. Nor will he be contented with understanding the structure and physiology of the body alone; but will seek to estimate and to regulate the corresponding influence of the mind. He will judge when it is proper to soothe and encourage the patient, when to alarm his fears, and when to animate his hopes. Although he may seek, on some occasions, to prevent surprise, and to blunt the keen edge of affliction, yet will he never forfeit his patient's confidence by violating the truth. In the treatment even of incurable disorders, he will still endeavour to alleviate or soften those calamities which he is unable to avert. When he can do nothing else, he may still, in the language of the poet,

> "Make languor smile, and smooth the bed of death."

Even in the last solemn hour, a judicious physician will be regarded as a friend, under whose care the dying man will utter his latest breath with more complacency. The value of a physician's attendance is likewise very sensibly felt by the friends and family of the sick. They are relieved from a heavy weight of responsibility; from the doubts and fears of erring in matters

which may be of importance, and from the painful task of judging often between jarring opinions officiously obtruded upon them. For these things an appeal to the true physician is the proper remedy; and not only his skill, but his prudence, should be such as to inspire confidence, to remove difficulties, and to enable him to take upon himself, if necessary, the entire charge and management of the sick.

COURAGE A PREVENTIVE OF DISEASE.

There is scarcely an individual who has not, at some time or other, experienced the powerful influence which mental distress exercises over the body—crippling its energies, and increasing the amount and certainty of any impending danger. Even in those scenes painted by the imagination of the student of nature, we find that the depressing affections of the mind are invariably represented as exercising a powerful influence over the physical faculties. There is scarcely a traveller who has not been reminded of this great influence whenever he has met with difficulties that were to be surmounted, and dangers that were to be braved, before he could reach the point it was his ambition to attain. The fearful and despairing, under such circumstances, are lost—his own imaginary estimate of the difficulties and the dangers, cause these to have the same influence as though they were in this manner actually magnified, and he either gives up his enterprize in despair, or, sinking beneath his fears and anxieties, becomes the victim of some quick-destroying disease. But, when nerved by courage, he determines to conquer every obstacle, and overcome every difficulty, he always finds the second less formidable than the first, and the danger and the difficulty invariably diminish in proportion to the confidence and boldness he acquires. Not less true are these facts in relation to morbid influences, and to disease;—an individual, buoyed up with courage, stands in less danger of either, than the fearful and despondent would under even a far less degree of exposure. The very air, which is breathed by the first with impunity, enkindles mortal disease in the enervated frame of the latter. Even when danger is afar off, the dread of its approach is almost as fatal to the timid as its presence. Hence the importance, in seasons like the present, of removing all unnecessary alarm and excitement, and of strengthening the courage and the confidence of every class of our citizens. We have not taken all the precautions within our power against the occurrence of an epidemic, when public and private nuisances are removed. The poorer classes must be employed, that their spirits may not be permitted to

droop; we must not only content them by affording them the mere necessaries of life, but cheer, by affording them, if possible, some of its comforts. Among those in more easy circumstances, we must divert the attention from the malignant character of the prevailing disease—and dissipate, as much as possible, those alarms and anxieties in regard to its nature which enervate both body and mind. If by these means we do not always prevent disease, we shall at least induce that salutary state of the system which disarms the malady of all its dangers: for, as king John says, "to fear a fever, gives strength unto a fever."

INFLUENCE OF MENTAL AFFECTIONS.

The loss, unworthiness, or ingratitude of friends—separation from parents—regret for past follies—anxiety about the future, prevent, in too many cases, the full enjoyment of the present. They are the fruitful cause of those "nervous and bilious" affections, of which numbers are the victims, at the commencement of the third period of life; these precursors of palsy and of gout may, in various instances, be traced to regret, to deep-felt sorrow, to disappointments, and to intense anxiety of the mind. To attempt to regulate the actions and functions of the body, without paying any attention to those of the mind, is like sitting down contented upon escaping one evil, while another of equal importance is still impending.

"The Fatal Nuptials."

"Softly, gently, then, my gallant white palfrey," said he, as his horse, on reaching a piece of even sward, leaned on his bit, and showed his inclination for a canter by the road, "we shall be at Florence soon enough—soon enough for me, at least;" and then Messer Bondelmonte mused to himself. "It is too late repining, but, in truth, I have been too obedient, in a matter of such enduring importance, to the will or the wishes of others. What is it to me, that the broad and fertile lands of the Amadei family, to be in dowry to my bride, lie close to mine, if my heart is to be as remote from her as hence to the pole? What are the jewels and the gold, and the diamonds and the pearls, for which they have ransacked Florence and Venice, richer still, if they cannot create an appetite where there is none? And will her splendid robes, her velvets, and her eastern shawls, have power to hide from an unlucky husband the defects of face or figure? I am not as avaricious as my kindred, or my avarice is in female

beauty, that I adore, and had always hoped to possess, in her who should have been my bride. Yes, I would give many of Clorinda's fat acres on the Arno, for a fairer colour on her cheek and brow; I would give her tall castle for a graceful feminine—truly feminine form; her diamonds I would barter for brilliant eyes—her pearls for better teeth—and her velvets and her silks, though all of the bright Tyrian die, I would willingly surrender for a better colour on Clorinda's temper, which is dark and rough as that peasant's coat. And are all my youthful dreams of loveliness and love—love passionate, yet legitimate—the sacred and reciprocated flame of a young and confiding wife, to come to this?—And am I not to know the domestic bliss—the hallowed affections, that gather round the social hearth, when a marriage is assorted—and are all those bright soul-filling scenes of my imagination, where a beautiful bride hung on my neck, in sweet tears at every parting, and bounded and glowed with joy at my every return!—Are these, indeed, to be but pictures of the brain, with no counterpart or reality? Well, well, it must be even so—I have gone too far to recede, I must go on. A plague on the palfrey, how impatient is the beast—I must go on to Florence and sign the settlements, and, love or not love, prepare to marry Clorinda degli Amadei."

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THE

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CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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"What shall we do?" is the oft repeated exclamation of the many, at this time of dreaded pestilence.—We say of dreaded pestilence—for its actual presence and spread hardly excite the dismay which is produced by anticipation of its arrival. To the question, we would reply—"Do not make fools of yourselves—do not allow your fears to so master your judgment, as to bring your religion, your philosophy, or your charity, into contempt." In the first place, if you are among the corporate authorities of a city or town, do not commit the exquisite absurdity, not less than cruelty, of prohibiting all intercourse with a neighbouring city or district, in which the cholera may happen to prevail. Your excuse that the measure may protect you—may be of service—or affords some chance of exemption, will not serve you. If you thus speak from ignorance of what has been attempted and failed elsewhere, you are inexcusable in proposing important measures, without the necessary information which you could easily obtain. If, knowing what has been done elsewhere, you set yourself up in direct and wilful opposition to positive knowledge, and nearly universal experience, you furnish argument and justification to any of your fellow-citizens, for setting at naught not only your office—but the laws in general. On your own showing, every man, despite the experience of the world—despite the admitted testimony in favour of moral obli-

gation and equity, may claim the privilege of setting up for himself, and to only rest satisfied with his own personal experience, however much he may, in the trial, interfere with the rights of property and person of other members of society.

All the states of Europe have enforced quarantine laws; nearly all the great cities on the continent have been surrounded by sanitary cordons, and all intercourse between them and diseased places cut off; but they have in succession been attacked by cholera, with just as much rapidity as the cities in India had been attacked—between which there was free intercourse. Nothing swayed by these facts, and the withdrawal of quarantine restrictions by the Austrian, Russian, and Prussian governments, in their respective dominions, as not only useless, but positively prejudicial; nothing enlightened by the want of success of the quarantine enforced in the English ports—nor by the appearance of cholera in the heart of Paris, without any town or spot on the coast, or any intermediate place, being visited by the disease—nor any known or admitted possible means of transmission by persons or goods; in nowise admonished by these, and numerous other facts, well known and well attested, the authorities in the state of New York commenced a course of wild—may we not say insane—restriction and exclusion. The common charities of life were abolished in the most selfish fears—travellers stopped—the poor emigrants deprived of the common rights of hospitality, and treated too often as wild beasts or rabid animals, approach to whom would be death—the canals were emptied, and boatmen thrown out of employment, and left to idleness, to exaggerated fears, or to dissipation. And of what avail were all these measures? As if in mockery of them all, the city most remote from Canada, the great commercial emporium of the state, was the first assailed.—Were the first victims emigrants from Europe, or persons from Canada? Not at all—they were inmates of a prison, who had had no intercourse with *infected* places, persons, or goods. Still the lesson seems to be incomplete. Rhode Island must, in the plenitude of the wisdom of her constituted authorities, forbid all intercourse with New York—and passengers in boats—travellers, well or sick—vessels driven into harbour by misfortunes at sea, as fire and the like, are all turned away, as if they were the imbodyings of pestilence and sin. Small will be the sympathies of those at a distance, if the people of that state become, in their turn, the sufferers from cholera. We are told that this is an age of improvement—that the schoolmaster is abroad.—He seems, however, in the present instance, to be either asleep or drunk, in the places in which measures so selfish, cruel, and absurd, have been adopted, by general clamour, as it were.

To every individual in the community crying out—"What

shall I do?" again we would reply—"Do not make a fool of yourself!"—It is forbidden by your religion, morality, or good sense, to believe in sorcery or witchcraft, and to put faith in charms, amulets, or love potions; you are equally restrained from giving credit to the idle rumours of the day respecting the present pestilence, and to the pretended preventives and specifics against it. Mind your business—follow the rules of sound hygiene—avoid doubtful articles of diet, or hazardous exposures to atmospherical vicissitudes. If you make yourself the slave of idle fears, you forego any pretensions to good sense—you virtually admit your want of confidence in a guiding Providence, and set an example to others, which, if followed, would lead to the greatest anarchy, an upsetting of all social order, and an abandonment of all the kindly charities of life.

Let the doctrine of selfish and timid folks be carried out, and no person will be found to give assistance to his neighbour or friend—so entirely occupied will each one be about the means of preserving himself. We have, indeed, abundant evidence to show that if any subject be long allowed to engage the mind, and to be much and often discussed at corners of streets, the first theme at early morn—the last to be talked about, late at night, hallucination and partial insanity will result. We have already heard of the choleraphobia in Europe—we have seen it here, and are free to declare, that, upon the whole, it has done more widespread and lasting injury to trade, and more painfully and cruelly broken up the bonds of social intercourse, than the disease itself. The mortality has been chiefly among those whose conduct and circumstances in life have been such that death seemed to be either sought after by their gross neligence and wilful intemperance and exposure, or brought about by poverty and destitution—so great, that humanity could hardly regret their end. But the trammels to commerce, and to national and social intercourse, the uncalled sufferings of thousands by neglect, the deaths of many by senseless fears, are referrible to those whose information, easy circumstances, and presumed religious feelings, would have induced us to expect better things from them.

In our own community, the city of Philadelphia, there is less cause of complaint, on this score, than in most other places in which the disease has prevailed—and let it be said and remembered that the equable state of feeling displayed by her citizens is mainly due to the clear and firm expression of opinion by her medical men, who have done that for her which it is extremely problematical, would ever have been done by her corporate authorities. Public opinion has taken a safe and salutary direction, and it only remains for all who desire the welfare of their fellow-citizens, to contribute to the continuance of this state of

things. When death is making its inroads we cannot but feel some anxiety—but when is the destroyer ever at rest? At this season we see hardly any additional cause for alarm among those who are above want and poverty, and whose conduct is that of moral and reasonable beings. We cannot see any greater cause for public alarm, now that deaths are reported from cholera, than in other summers, in which the same description of persons, the drunkard, the dissolute, those overheated in a hot sun, and using improper food, have been taken suddenly sick, and died. The greater part of the population has no more reason to be disturbed now than then. The intense heats of summer generate an irritability, which makes persons more liable to be thrown into disease, by causes that at other times would be comparatively innocuous. The class of persons more peculiarly prone to thus suffer, are those above-mentioned. If we substitute the term, *epidemical state of the air*, for intense summer heat, we shall have a very accurate idea of the actual state of things—and, on investigation, we shall find that, with the exercise of common prudence and common sense, which implies an absence of senseless and childish fear, we are nearly as safe now as at other times. Certainly, a man of common discretion, living in or coming to Philadelphia, has a fairer prospect of life and exemption from disease than he had last winter, during the period of the prevalence of the influenza. It is more in his power to ward off cholera, than it was for him to escape influenza. If he attend to the first symptoms the one is as easily cured as the other; and in regard to transmission of the disease from person to person, or its being contagious, he need not entertain any more fear in cholera than he would have done in influenza. Senseless disregard of proper clothing and food, and exposure to sudden transitions of temperature, bring on both diseases, during the seasons of epidemical states of the air; fear will give effect to both, and induce both—and quackery will help to bring on both and kill in both. Again we would say to each and all of our readers, and to the public at large—do not make fools of yourselves—act as reasonable and reasoning creatures ought to do—and without fear, and in religious resignation, you may confidently abide by the result.

CLIMATE OF PALESTINE.

Under this head we include the usual properties of the atmosphere which minister to health and vegetation, for it has been justly remarked that Syria (Palestine) has three climates. The summits of Libanus, for instance, covered with snow, dif-

fuse a salubrious coolness in the interior; the flat situations, on the contrary, especially those which stretch along the line of the coast, are constantly subjected to heat, accompanied with great humidity; while the adjoining plains of the desert are scorched by the rays of a burning sun. The seasons and the productions, of course, undergo a corresponding variation. In the mountains the months of spring and summer very nearly coincide with those in the southern parts of Europe; and the winter, which lasts from November till March, is sharp and rigorous. No year passes without snow, which often covers the surface of the ground to the depth of several feet, during many weeks. The spring and autumn are agreeable, and the summer by no means oppressive. But in the plains, on the other hand, as soon as the sun has passed the equator, a sudden transition takes place to an overpowering heat, which continues till October. To compensate for this, however, the winter is so temperate that orange-trees, dates, bananas, and other delicate fruits, grow in the open field. Hence, we need hardly observe that a journey of a few hours carries the traveller through a succession of seasons, and allows him a choice of climate, varying from the mild temperature of France, to to the blood-heat of India, or the pinching cold of Russia.

The winds in Palestine, as in all countries which approach the tropics, are periodical, and governed in no small degree by the course of the sun. About the autumnal equinox, the northwest begins to blow with frequency and strength. It renders the air dry, clear, and sharp; and it is remarkable that on the seacoast it causes the headache, like the northeast wind in Egypt. We may further observe, that it usually blows three days successively, like the south and southeast at the other equinox. It continues to prevail till November, that is, about fifty days, when it is followed by the west and southwest, called by the Arabs "the fathers of rain." In March arise the pernicious winds from the southern quarter, with the same circumstances as in Egypt; but they become feebler as we advance towards the north, and are much more supportable in the mountains than in the low country. Their duration at each return, varies from twenty-four hours to three days. The easterly winds, which come next in order, continue till June, when they are commonly succeeded by an inconstant breeze from the north. At this season the wind shifts through all the points every day, passing with the sun from east to south, and from south to west, to return by the north and recommence the same circuit. At this time, too, a local wind, called the land-breeze, prevails along the coast during the night; it springs up after sunset, lasts till the appearance of the solar orb in the morning, and extends only a few leagues to sea.

Travellers have observed that thunder, in the lowlands of Palestine as well as in Egypt, is more common during the winter than in summer; while in the mountains, on the contrary, it is more frequent in the latter season, and very seldom heard in the former. It both these countries it happens oftenest in the rainy season, or about the time of the equinoxes, especially the autumnal; and it is further remarkable that it never comes from the land side, but always from the sea. These storms, too, generally speaking, take place either in the evening or morning, and rarely in the middle of the day. They are accompanied with violent showers of rain, and sometimes of uncommonly large hail, which, soon covering the face of the country with stagnant water, give rise to a copious evaporation.

The phenomenon alluded to by the prophet Elijah, is still found to diversify the aspect of the eastern sky. Volney remarks, that clouds are sometimes seen to dissolve and disperse like smoke; while on other occasions they form in an instant, and from a small speck increase to a prodigious size. This is particularly observable at the summit of Lebanon; and mariners have usually found that the appearance of a cloud on this peak is an infallible presage of a westerly wind, one of the "fathers of rain" in the climate of Judea.*

Waterspouts were not unfrequent along the shores of Syria, and more especially in the neighbourhood of Mount Carmel. Those observed by Dr. Shaw, appeared to be so many cylinders of water falling down from the clouds; though by the reflection it might be of these descending columns, or from the actual dropping of the fluid contained in them, they would sometimes, says he, appear at a distance to be sucked up from the sea. The theory of waterspouts in the present day does, in fact, admit the supposition here referred to; that the air, being rarefied by particular causes, has its equilibrium restored by the elevation of the water, on the same principle that mercury rises in the barometer, or the contents of a well in a common pump. The opinions of the learned traveller on this subject are extremely loose and unscientific, and are only valuable in our times as marking a certain stage in the progress of meteorological inquiry.

The same author has recorded a fact which we have not observed in the pages of any other tourist. In traveling by night, in the beginning of April, through the valleys of Mount Ephraim, he was attended for more than an hour by an *ignis fatuus*, that displayed itself in a variety of extraordinary appearances. It was sometimes globular, and sometimes pointed, like the flame of a candle; then it spread itself, so as to involve the whole company in its pale inoffensive light; after which it contracted,

* Travels or Observations, vol. ii. p. 135.

and suddenly disappeared. But in less than a minute it would begin again to exert itself as at other times, running along from one place to another with great swiftness, like a train of gunpowder set on fire; or else it would expand itself over more than two or three acres of the adjacent mountains, discovering every shrub and tree that grew upon them. The atmosphere, from the beginning of the evening, had been remarkably thick and hazy; and the dew, as felt upon the bridles, was unusually clammy and unctuous. In such weather similar luminous bodies are observed skipping about the masts and yards of ships, and are called by the mariners *corpusanse*, a corruption of the *cuerpo santo*, or sacred body, of the Spaniards. The same were the Castor and Pollux of the ancients. Some writers have attempted to account for these phenomena, particularly for the *ignis fatuus*, by supposing it to be occasioned by successive swarms of flying glowworms, or other insects of the same nature. But, as Dr. Shaw observes, not to perceive or feel any of these insects, even when the light which they produce spreads itself around us, should induce us to explain both this appearance and the other on the received principle that they are actually meteors, or a species of natural phosphorus.*

THE PEACH TREE.

No tree presents a more beautiful appearance to the eye than the peach tree in full blossom. The richness and delicacy of the colours, united with the agreeable odour exhaled from the flowers, render it an object of regard by all who take delight in the thousand manifestations of the goodness and benevolence of the Deity. Yet these leaves and flowers, pleasant as they are, both to the smell and the sight, contain no inconsiderable quantity of one of the most deadly poisons that is known in the whole range either of nature or of art, and which can be separated from the blossom by a process not difficult to be performed. Ten drops of this liquid, undiluted, are amply sufficient to destroy the life of the most vigorous man, and its effects are as rapid as they are certain. It preserves also the agreeable fragrance of the natural flower, and the taste is sweet and pleasant to the palate; and, although not intoxicating itself, (in the usual meaning of the word,) it is often added to give a flavour to those factitious beverages, which, under the names of *cordials*, *liqueurs*, *Noyeaus*, *&c.*, have been invented to poison those who are too polite to become victims to the ordinary and vulgar potations of brandy and rum.

* Travels through Syria and Egypt, vol. i. p. 313.

Now suppose that fashion, or any other preposterous whim of folly, should attempt to introduce this article into general use; is there a person of common sense who would admit, for a moment, that a man had a *right* to manufacture and sell it, either because the appetite of the public was depraved, and demanded it, or that it was a profitable business, and to be followed as necessary for the support of his family?—And what would be thought of that farmer, who should so far pervert his most honourable occupation, as to rear peach trees for the sake of the blossoms, that a deadly poison might be extracted, and thus deprive the community of that fruit which a kind Providence intended for preserving health, and adding to the innocent gratification of his creatures? Yet, in what essential particular would such conduct differ from that which is practised every day by thousands, who would fain be deemed *honest* and *honourable* men? The various grains intended for the sustenance of mankind, are as much perverted from their lawful use, by being converted into alcohol, as would the flowers of the peach tree, in the case supposed. The product in each is equally a poison—the one as effectually destroying life as the other, and differing only in the rapidity of their operations, and *nothing at all in their certainty.* While one would be proscribed by the unanimous consent of the community, the use of the other is not merely defended, but the arguments of those who would persuade to its abandonment are resisted, upon the ground that such result would be a surrender of the rights and privileges of a *freeman.* Alas, for the inconsistency of human reason!—*Norwich Rel. Messenger.*

PROUD FLESH.

It is somewhat difficult to understand exactly what is meant by the term proud flesh; though it is one in the mouth of every person, almost, out of the profession. Whenever an ulcer or sore occurs, their anxiety is to know, whether there is any proud flesh in it; and every old granny will recite to you a thousand applications for the destruction or prevention of this much dreaded evil. Surgeons, it is true, often meet with ulcers, the healing of which is prevented by the granulations or new particles of flesh, projecting too much beyond the level of the surrounding parts, forming a soft, spongy excrescense of a pale red colour, which is extremely irritable, and bleeds on the slightest touch. To prevent the growth of this, various applications are necessary. But, we have found, that where no such fungus granulations have existed in a sore, it has been pronounced by the vul-

gar to be filled with proud flesh. The granulations themselves, by which the process of healing is carried on by nature, in the healthiest and most simple ulcer, are in fact constantly mistaken by the ignorant for a diseased production—in other words for proud flesh. We have thought it necessary to advert to this fact on the present occasion, in consequence of the serious injury which is produced every day, by the various irritations and caustic applications, that are applied to ulcers in order to get rid of this imaginary proud flesh. An ulcer which, if left at rest, with only the simplest dressings, would have healed perfectly in the course of a few days, has been converted, by the remedies applied to it, to destroy proud flesh, into an indolent, long continued, painful and unmanageable sore; and which often can only be got rid of by a painful operation. We have known an ulcer dressed every time it exhibited red granulations, without the production of which it could not have healed, with burnt alum, blue vitriol, or calcined oyster shells, that is, pure lime. The effect of which dressings was the spread of the ulcer over the whole leg, and confinement in the hospital for a month or two before it was effectually healed; and even then a spreading painful sore was liable to be produced by every slight injury inflicted upon the limb.

In the treatment of ulcers, particularly those which occur in the lower extremities, in certain constitutions, a very considerable degree of skill and judgment are required—and the public would do well in all cases carefully to avoid the applications, to the use of which they are urged by their friends or officious neighbours, and have recourse at once to the advice of a regular surgeon. By so doing they will often avoid much suffering and confinement—and we may add, expense also.

DISINFECTING POWER OF HEAT.*

Much interest has of late been excited by the publication of a series of interesting experiments devised and performed by Dr. Henry, of Manchester, England, which would seem to show, very conclusively, the disinfecting power of elevated temperatures. Dr. Henry's attention was first directed to the subject in consequence of a wish expressed by a townsman of his, that some effectual method could be devised of guarding against the introduction of the plague into England, by means of cotton, without incurring the serious commercial sacrifices attending the enforcement of quarantine. This is not the first instance in the history of philosophy, of inquiries engaged in

* From the Health Almanac for 1833.—Published and for sale by Key, Mielke & Biddle, Philadelphia.

from the dictates of a doubtful, or even erroneous hypothesis, resulting in the discovery of important facts, and the establishment of a true theory. For ourselves, we are utterly sceptical of the contagiousness of plague, and we may add, in advance, of typhus fever. After entering this caveat, we proceed to lay before our readers the leading facts detailed by Dr. Henry, in the Philosophical Magazine and Annals of Philosophy, for Nov. 1831, and January, 1832.

Arguments, derived from chemical reasoning, appeared to strengthen the probability, that "temperature, raised to no great extent, would suffice for the decomposition of infectious or contagious matter, the affinities to which they owe their existence being nicely balanced, and easily disturbed."

In pursuing, experimentally, the inquiry, two circumstances seemed to Dr. Henry to require to be established.

1st. That raw cotton, and other substances likely to harbour contagion, would sustain no injury by the temperature conceived to be necessary for their disinfection.

2dly. That, in at least some one unequivocal instance, contagious or infectious matter should be proved, by actual experiment, to be destructible at that temperature.

I. The result of some trials to test the first of these propositions was at first discouraging, as it was found that raw cotton, submitted to a dry heat of 180 to 190 deg. Fahrenheit, for two hours, was pronounced to be essentially injured; and cotton yarn, similarly exposed, had lost nearly a third of its former power of resistance. It was, however, fortunately soon discovered, that if the articles in question were put to one side for a few days, and allowed to recover their customary amount of moisture, they at the same time regained—the raw cotton the capability of being spun into perfect yarn, and the yarn its former tenacity, so as to bear the same weight as that which had not been subjected to the heat.

"Articles of cotton, silk, and wool, after being manufactured, both separately and in a mixed state, into piece goods, for clothing, were next submitted to the same treatment. Among them were several fabrics, which were purposely chosen, of the most fugitive colours and delicate textures. After being exposed three hours to a temperature of 180°, and then left a few hours in a room without fire, they were pronounced, by an excellent judge of the articles, who furnished the specimens, to be perfectly uninjured in every respect. Furs and feathers, similarly heated, underwent no change; and there can be no doubt that if the apparatus had enabled me, (says Dr. H.) conveniently to have raised steam of increased density, a temperature above 212°* Fahrenheit, would have done no injury to the delicate and costly articles submitted to it."

II. The most important point to be ascertained, and that on which the utility of the inquiry hinges, is whether a temperature below 212° Fahrenheit is capable of destroying the contagion of *fomites*—*Fomites* (the plural of

* The temperature of boiling water.

fomes, fuel) expresses contagious matter existing in absorbent substances—such as wool, clothing, &c. One of the best tests of the power of heat to decompose contagion, was furnished in subjecting to this agency the matter of cowpock.

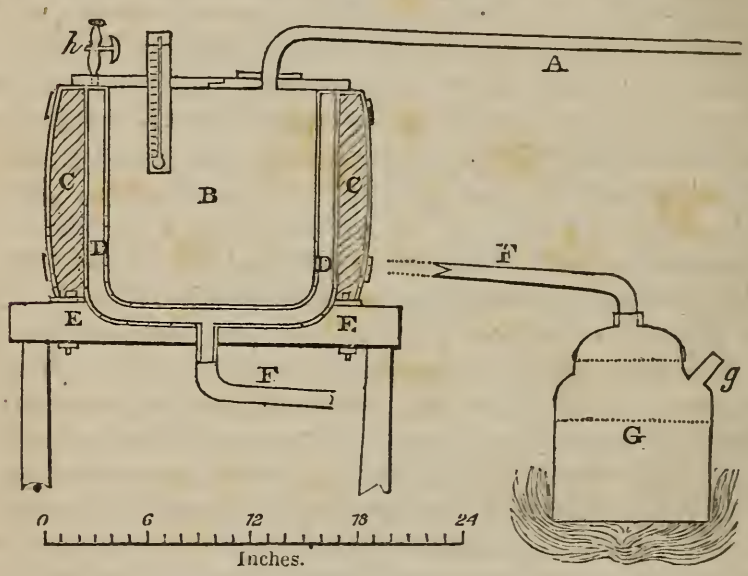
It resulted from various trials made by Dr. Henry, with the assistance of Mr. Gee, the house-apothecary of the Lying-in-Hospital, that vaccine matter is not destroyed by a temperature of 120° Fahrenheit; and it is even probable that it would sustain, without losing its efficacy, a heat several degrees higher. 2dly. That vaccine lymph is rendered totally inert by exposure to a temperature of 140° Fahrenheit. May we not, says Dr. H., hence infer, that those subtle animal poisons which lie dormant, in the state of *fomites*, are likely to be disarmed of their terrors by the same simple means? The inference has been fully borne out in the instance of scarlatina, by late experiments of Dr. Henry.

He found, after repeated trials, that the contagious matter of scarlatina, so apt to remain for a long time attached to clothing, may be dissipated or destroyed by exposure to a temperature not below 200° Fahrenheit. The disinfecting agent in these cases could only have been heat; for the flannel waistcoats worn next the skins of patients in the height of scarlet fever, were put in closed receptacles, and bottles closely corked and sealed, and subjected to heat alone. These waistcoats were afterwards worn by persons who never had the scarlatina, and yet they entirely escaped in the present instance.

The ingenious and scientific author limits his proposal for the destruction by heat of the contagion, to that existing in substances technically called 'susceptible:' for instance, to infected clothing of every description, infected bedding and bed furniture of every kind that would be spoiled by washing; to trunks and other packages brought by travellers from places in which a contagious disease is prevailing, and merchandise, wherever it can be shown, or rendered highly probable, that such merchandise has been in the way of imbibing contagious matter. Letters rendered almost illegible by fumigation, might be disinfected in this way, if not closed by sealing-wax but by wafers. Writing paper begins to burn brown a little under 300° Fahrenheit; but it still retains its texture, and the ink is not materially changed.

The apparatus employed in the process of disinfection is so simple, that a representation of it can only be required by those who are not conversant with the application of steam as a source of heat. The object in this instance, is to place articles of clothing, &c. which are intended to be disinfected, in a steady temperature above 200° Fahrenheit, for any required length of time, without, however, allowing the steam to come in contact with substances so exposed. This is effected by two vessels of copper, or of tinned iron; on the innermost of which the letter B stands in the sketch. The latter vessel is set within a larger one of similar shape, upon the edge of which it rests by a rim, which is united to the larger vessel by solder. There is, therefore, a cavity between the two vessels shown by the letters D D, for containing the steam. The bottom of the outer vessel is a little dished, or sloped downwards, and to the central part is soldered a short pipe for admitting steam

and returning water; the space, on the centre of which the letter B is placed, is the *receptacle* for the articles which are to be heated. To avoid the waste of heat through the sides of the outer vessel, it is packed all round, as shown at C C, with any non-conducting substance, such as hemp, bands of straw, or rolls of flannel. To prevent these from being displaced, they may be surrounded by barrel staves, secured by hoops of wood or metal, Over the top of the apparatus a wooden cover is applied, which being rabbeted along the middle, as shown by the sketch, admits either of one half or the



whole of the cover being removed at pleasure. From this cover, towards the right, a pipe A proceeds, the only objects of which is to carry into the flue of the chimney any contagious effluvia that may possibly escape undecomposed. The thermometer is introduced occasionally through a slit in the other half. The small air-cock *h*, which is removable at pleasure, passes through an aperture in the same half of the cover, and, when open, establishes a communication between the space D D and the atmosphere. The whole vessel rests on a table E E, (the legs of which are represented as if broken off,) hollowed out to receive it. To this table, the vessel is fastened by four small bolts, the extremities of two of which are shown by the sketch. To give a hold to the heads of these bolts, a *flanche* is soldered near the bottom of the outer vessel, which has also a corresponding flanche at the top, for the purpose of keeping the packing in its place.

The small boiler G has a movable lid, from the centre of which issues a pipe F F, five or six feet long, or any other convenient length, which slips over the pipe that descends from the steam vessel. To bring the drawings into less space, this pipe is represented with a part broken off. The dimensions of every part of the apparatus are given by the scale annexed to the sketch.

The vessel G is to be filled about two-thirds with water, which, to save time, may be nearly boiling at the outset. Being set over a fire, and the

joints that require it having been made good by flour-paste spread on paper, the opening *g* is to be shut by a cock or plug, and the small air-cock opened, to allow the escape of the air confined in the space D D. Both halves of the cover being then put into their places, the thermometer is to be introduced through the slit. When it indicates upwards of 200° F., that half of the cover from which the pipe A proceeds* is to be removed, the infected articles are to be placed in the receptacle, and the half cover replaced. The fire under the boiler is to be regulated by the rate at which the excess of steam issues from the small air-cock. This excess, if found inconvenient by its escape into the room, may be conveyed to the outside by a pipe of the necessary length, screwed upon the lapped end of the air-cock. Hot water will require to be occasionally supplied through the aperture *g*; but, unless the steam be unnecessarily wasted by too large a fire, this need not be done after, as what is condensed in the cavity D D is constantly trickling back into the boiler through the pipe F F.

The dimensions and shape of the apparatus, and the material of which it is made, may be varied according to the extent of the operations for which it is intended. For domestic purposes, a common teakettle, by stopping the spout with a plug, and making the necessary additions to the lid, will answer perfectly well; and a cheap and simple disinfecting vessel, resembling B, may easily be contrived. For large operations, a boiler of sheet iron, resembling that of a steam engine, will be necessary. If thought expedient, a higher temperature than 212° Fahrenheit, may easily be obtained in the receptacle, by subjecting the steam to a greater pressure than that of the atmosphere, the apparatus being, in that case, provided with a proper safety valve.

If heated air should be found adequate to the effect, it might be employed for ordinary articles, reserving the more costly vehicle, steam, for articles which are of greater value, and which are easily injured.

PORT WINE—PURE JUICE OF THE GRAPE.

The unfortunate and ill-judged recommendation by one or two New York physicians, who had visited Canada in the cholera season, to drink port wine as a means of prevention, in order to give tone to the stomach and bowels, has suddenly produced a great demand for the article. We say the recommendation was unfortunate, because it has led to the free use, by a great many persons, of a wine which is more adulterated and drugged than, probably, any other in the market. The recommendation was ill-advised, because, even when pure, port wine is illy adapted to general use as a drink for those with irritable digestion. All of a sudden, as we learn from advertisements in the

* The pipe A will be found much more convenient if made into two parts, the part attached to the cover being not more than a foot long, its open end being made to slip into the longer part, as a few drops of moisture always escape.

newspapers—a quantity of pure port wine, *free from brandy, and other foreign matters*, seems to have been brought out from the vaults of wine-merchants, to whom its purity would seem to have been hitherto unknown. We are sorry for the credit of the advertisers, and we have one in a New York paper more immediately in our eye at this moment, that such annunciations should be made. If any person knows their inaccuracy, it must be they who trade in wines.—Need they be told, that no port wine is exported from Portugal, for London or elsewhere, without a large admixture of brandy—Can they be ignorant of the fact, that in England it is still further drugged—and that more than half of the liquor sold and drunk in that country as port wine is a vile compound, into which there does not enter a drop of the juice of Portuguese or any other kind of grape. An incident, which occurred some years back in London, is a good and no uncommon illustration of the kind of port wine drunk by his British majesty's good lieges. It seems that a carter, by careless driving, or from some unavoidable accident, allowed a pipe of port wine to roll off and be stove in, and consequently spilt in the street. The owners brought suit against the man for the recovery of the value of the wine, estimated at market price. But the carter, who was in the secret, proved, by the testimony of one of the persons employed in the manufacture, that there was not more than *five gallons of real port in the pipe.*

The initiated need not be reminded of the enormous extent to which the sophistication of wine is carried—nor of the means by which it is performed. They know the department of this trade called *crusting* of bottles and casks, staining the lower ends of bottle-corks with a fine red colour—and also the ingredients by which the astringency and colour of the wine are simulated—such as alum, logwood, elderberries, juice of sloes, &c. They may object to the testimony of Accum in this matter, but they cannot so well deny the authority of a certain book, called "*A useful Guide for Grocers, Distillers, &c.*" published, two or three years ago, in New York. The curious reader will find in it *most approved receipts* for making '*English Port*,' and '*Imitation Port*,'—and will probably, after a perusal of these, and of the methods by which '*Genuine Old Port*' is manufactured in London, have some shrewd suspicions about the *purity*, and freedom from *brandy, and other foreign matters*, of the port wine advertised here at home.

Physicians should weigh these things well before they recommend a liquor for general use. They ought to have known, in the present case, that, for one bottle of pure port wine, ten of a spurious and an adulterated kind will be drunk by their fellow-citizens. We have great doubts of the propriety, under any view of the question, of people drinking brandy and water, or cider and brandy, coloured with logwood and tasted with alum, as a preventive of cholera; and sure we are that a great many who consider themselves port wine drinkers, take, in fact, this precious compound.

It should be remembered, also, that even the purest port that can be obtained, contains so large a proportion of alcohol, 20 to 25½ per cent.—about half the strength of brandy or whiskey—that it ought to be prescribed with

care even medicinally. Rarely ought it to be used dietetically, or as a preventive of cholera, or of any other disease. Let our readers note the inconsistency in this case:—Brandy is strictly forbidden—its use is regarded as fatal in cholera times.—What then is the inference? To abandon alcoholic liquors, and substitute simple water, or a vegetable infusion, as a beverage? O no, in place of plain brandy and water, a physician—we ought rather to say some physicians—direct the use of disguised brandy, as in Port! The astringency of this modified brandied compound, on which its virtues are supposed to rest, is not by any means a commendable property in incipient diarrhœa, or the early or premonitory stage of cholera. Every practitioner knows that the use of astringent medicines at this time requires a very nice discrimination of cases; and, as a general rule, is by no means to be recommended.

BOERHAAVE.—BACON.

There is a tradition in Holland, that Boerhaave, the celebrated physician, used to tell his particular friends that the great secret of preserving health, after temperance and moderate exercise, was to keep the head cool, the feet warm, and the digestion unimpaired, and to have as little as possible to do with medicine. He told an English lady—"Your countrymen destroy themselves by strong passions, strong punch, and the too frequent use of barks." There is also a tradition that Boerhaave kept himself constantly warmly clad in his moist country.

Lord Bacon, who was, perhaps, a little too whimsical in the things relating to his health, took every precaution to prevent what he termed "the predatory influence of the external air upon the vital spirits." He was convinced, that, by oil and woollen clothing, much good was in this way effected. He used to repeat, with much satisfaction, the reply of the ancient Gymnosophist, who, to some one who asked of him how he came to live to a very advanced age, replied—"By using honey internally, and oil externally."

"In a certain town on the eastern coast of America," says an anonymous lecturer on philosophy, "the people under a changeful and blustering sky are remarkably healthy."—On inquiring into the cause of their exemption from the usual effects of cold and damp, and frequent atmospherical vicissitudes, he was told that "settlers, some years previously, were very much harassed by diseases, and that, by an epidemic, the town was nearly depopulated. Some people of North Briton coming to settle amongst them, who, being seriously disposed, and withal wise and prudent, took good care of themselves, were in the constant habit of wearing woollen garments next unto their skins, and

in this manner escaped disease. The inhabitants observing this, made use of the same covering, and never thenceforth suffered from their old complaints."

Thus we find that the common experience of mankind has always pointed to the true means for the preservatives of health—though so few have had the good sense to profit by that experience.

METHOD OF PRESERVING MILK.

M. Kirkoff, a Russian chemist, who discovered the means of converting starch into sugar, has made numerous experiments upon milk, the result of which is that it can be preserved for any length of time. The process is as follows:—Fresh milk is to be slowly evaporated over a moderate fire, until there remains only a dry powder; this last is to be put into a bottle, which is to be closely corked; when required for use, it is sufficient to dissolve a portion in a suitable quantity of water. The mixture will have the taste and all the properties of milk.

The patrons of the *Journal of Health* are respectfully informed that exertions are making to bring up the Nos. to the regular days of publication, after which they will be published punctually. Improvements, of a pleasing and instructive nature, will be made at the commencement of the 4th volume. An elegant portrait of Dr. Benj. Rush will embellish the first No., and numerous engravings will be added to the additionally interesting matter.

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THE

JOURNAL OF HEALTH.

CONDUCTED BY AN ASSOCIATION OF PHYSICIANS.

Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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Credulity, though not regarded by writers on metaphysics as a primitive emotion or mode of feeling, is so much a part and parcel of human nature, that we can never, for a moment, lose sight of it while studying this latter. It ought, perhaps, rightfully to be viewed as the result of the emotion of wonder, or love of the marvellous, and of faith or veneration. In regard to the possession and display of these two last mentioned faculties of the mind, we find great differences among men. Sir Walter Scott, to draw our examples from illustrious names, has both of these in strong relief. Voltaire was deficient in both—lamentably so in the latter, or veneration. Doctor Johnson was a man of faith and a lover of the marvellous, but by no means credulous. Indolence, by which the mind is indisposed to inquire into the realities of narratives and assertions; and ignorance of the facts, in disproof of the reputed marvellous and wonderful, are the chief supports of credulity, which we desire on this occasion to separate from the innate emotions or sentiments already adverted to; for although blended of these, it could not find aliment, or would only be allowed scope in works of imagination, but for indolence and ignorance. Now, when we reflect on the very large and liberal allowance of these negative qualities to mankind, we cannot be surprised that credulity is so common nor at the regular succession of cunning knaves, who live and fatten on their

credulous fellow-men. Of all the means by which credulity is most readily and fully worked upon, abundant promises of bodily or spiritual welfare are ever the most successful. To the promise no objection can be made, provided the conditions be equitable, and offer no infringement on moral and physical laws. But when future happiness is promised to the unrepentant sinner, and health and longevity to the glutton, the drunkard, or the debauchee; when restoration from disease is to be obtained by agents inert or positively mischievous, and which we know from experience are incapable of producing the promised effect, then may we truly exclaim, that quackery is at work with credulity, and that people are, their eyes and ears open, and of their own freewill, as it were, destroyed morally and physically.

Even danger, which usually rouses individuals to action and sharpens their intellects, is, in the beginning, insufficient to stimulate a community. Too indolent to inquire or make exertions—often ignorant of the channel which they ought to take, a people will often be found to intrust their lives, in war, to a boastful soldier, rather than take the trouble of seeking out a modest and retiring veteran. And, in times of pestilence, an audacious quack will obtain credence for the reputed efficacy of his nostrums—while the skilful physician, too conscientious, and withal too proud to obtrude himself upon public notice, is for the time diregarded; perhaps he is accused of ignorance because he does not blazon forth his knowledge at the street corners, or keep a standing advertisement of his skill, disinterestedness, moral worth, patriotism and Christian charity in the newspapers of the day.

Among innumerable instances of credulity, the most remarkable and most generally known to our readers, are the search after the philosopher's stone, by which all the baser metals were to be promptly transmuted into gold, and the elixir vitæ or cordial, by the use of which health and life, for an interminable period of time, were to be insured. Next to these comes a belief in the royal touch as a cure for scrofula, and the protecting power of amber necklaces—pieces of camphor hung round the neck, or thieves' vinegar against pestilential diseases. These are not exploded errors. Many, who read a lottery advertisement, are persuaded that a ticket will prove to them a philosopher's stone and make them masters of immense wealth. The nostrums of quacks are still puffed and vended, as, some of them, not only sovereign cures for specified diseases, but for all those which can by any possibility affect mankind. No matter about the truth of the promises thus held forth. The people believe, and that is enough for the purposes of the advertiser and speculator on their credulity.

At this present juncture, we read and hear of so many specifics, as either preventives, or cures of the cholera, that one must be greatly surprised, if a hundredth part of what is related

of them were true, at our having any case of this disease to contend with. There has not been, indeed, many new nostrums invented on the emergency—but then, as compensation, new virtues have been offered to the old. A Panacea, which was to cure every thing, could not, of course fail, from the showing of its proprietor and his hired eulogists, to cure cholera. Accordingly, it was announced in due form by advertisement, by puff direct and oblique, as the preventive to this disease. But in order that the public might have two pegs to hang their faith on, we were soon told that his Vermifuge was the remedy. The fate of this nostrum is rather a peculiar one. It would seem, from the "Communications" on the subject, to have been more successful in every other disease, in which chance or ignorance has led to its use, than in cases of worms, for which it is professedly intended. As a mixture of an irritating kind, productive, on very good testimony, of alarming, if not fatal results, by exciting inflammation of the stomach and bowels, this vermifuge is not, one would reasonably suppose, a preventive of cholera, at a season when we are cautioned against taking a dose of the commonest medicines without great care and circumspection. Next comes that regularly summer puffed remedy against the bowel complaint of children,—now suddenly converted into a remedy for cholera. Its *wonderful powers*, already attested by a no inconsiderable mortuary list of children, are now to be as signally displayed on adults.

Then follows the Thomsonian, Botanical, Steam-herbalist, who promises, for the moderate compensation of thirty-seven and a half cents a week, to insure his subscribers against the cholera. Who can resist an appeal so full of modesty and disinterestedness!

But it would be an endless task to attempt an enumeration of the remedies for cholera, advertised and vended at this time. They are all offered in the same amiable spirit with our thirty-seven and a half cent per week doctor: and are only paralleled by the plague quacks and mountebanks in London, an account of whom is given in this number.

Some physicians, men of learning and of considerable benevolence, are not entirely blameless during the present season of agitation and alarm. They are a little too prone to generalize advice, useful in the particular case in which it was first given, but liable to be strangely abused by its universal application to persons, most oppositely constituted and circumstanced. The recommendation to drink port wine, is one of these errors on which we have animadverted in our last number. They are, also, too ready to give their sanction, for the sake as they say, of tranquillizing the minds of their patients, to newspaper remedies which have the alleged recommendation of the old women's "yerb teas," viz. that they do no harm if they do no good. The

very way to keep their patients in a state of continued agitation and anxiety, is for physicians to humour them in these peculiarities; for as there is a constant succession of sovereign remedies, there must be, in course, successive trials; one week our stomachs are to be burnt with spices, another with port wine; to-day we are to be *panaceaed*, to-morrow *vermifuged;* one day dosed with *Thomsonian, botanical medicines*—and another tickled with three drops of spirits of camphor. But a short time ago woollen or flannel belts next the skin, were all the fashion—now Burgundy-pitch plasters are the rage. Against absurdities of all kinds, affecting health, we hold it to be the bounden duty of a physician to remonstrate and to discourage his patients and friends from giving into them. Let him tell all inquirers to behave themselves, to avoid gossiping, to attend to their personal and family affairs, and to only draw on the apothecary with a written recipe from their chosen medical adviser.

IMAGINARY HYDROPHOBIA.

It has long been our opinion that two-thirds, at least, of the cases reported as hydrophobia, in the human subject, were either instances of tetanus, or of disease of the nervous system, produced entirely by the influence of the imagination. The most singular instance of purely imaginary hydrophobia, occurred, a few years since, at Guy's Hospital, in London, which places, in a clear light, the dreadful effects produced upon the body by the mind, when strongly impressed with fear or horror. The case to which we refer occurred in the person of Samuel Raffles, the head waiter at the Dover Castle Inn, Lambeth. He was brought to the hospital labouring under every symptom usually described as presenting itself in hydrophobia. He foamed at the mouth, yelped and barked like a dog, and, on water being presented to him, he was immediately attacked with repeated spasmodic convulsions of the most violent character. He was immediately bled copiously by means of cups; a most strict examination was then made to ascertain whether there were any wounds or scars about his body, which might have been occasioned by the bite of an animal; but, after the minutest search, none were discovered. By pursuing the "soothing system" he was entirely relieved, and in a few days was suffered to return to his family. His attack was attributed by his medical attendants to the effects of extreme fear and horror, occasioned by his having read an account of a case of hydrophobia, in which, a short time previously, the injection of water into the veins had been practised, without effect, the patient dying in the most horrible agony.

REMARKS ON ADULTERATED SPIRITS AND WINES.*

By Powell Charles Blackett, *Surgeon, R.N. M.R. C. S. F.Z.S. Surgeon Extraordinary to his Majesty when His Royal Highness the Duke of Clarence, &c. &c.*

22, *Queen-street, Grosvenor-square.*

The late panic, caused by the reports and lists of a disease which never existed in this town, should induce every medical man to step forward and give his opinions, in order to stop, at a future period, the recurrence of such false statements; as two-thirds of the cases were attacks caused by the depravity of the sufferers, added to which, their manner of eating and drinking—their food being of the worst kind, and their drink the most poisonous. These poor deluded creatures, from dissolute minds, study only quantity and not quality, buy cheap food, and gulp cheap spirits or wines; moderation and temperance being far from their thoughts. What can be more baneful to them than adulterated spirits or wines, which undermine their health, their vigour, and even their lives; an evil of such magnitude which, while it impoverishes the people, is productive of such pernicious consequences loudly demand redress. Is it to be supposed that men leading such lives, surrounded by filth, by dirt, and by vermin, in their close, damp habitations, can escape long from serious attacks, which will quickly end in dissolution? Believe me, they have been, and will continue to be, the occurrences of every year; and if these cases are cholera, we never were, and never shall be, free from that disease. Unless the lower orders alter very much in regard to cleanliness and their modes of living, they will continue to be a degenerate set of people, a misery to themselves, and a disgrace to their country. If they would well weigh the old saying, that every glass of spirits is a nail in their coffin; and drink, instead of this pernicious stuff, wholesome and good beer, they would themselves, with their wives and families, be a credit to society, and a stay to their country; but now, instead of that, they are themselves a disgrace, their wives and families parish paupers or dirty beggars: nay worse, very often thieves. Would to God, that the temperance society succeed! then we should see the labouring class healthy, contented, and happy—their children a blessing to them instead of a curse. O, ye dram-drinkers! if you knew what you swallowed to destroy your brains, or to prey on your very vitals, the most depraved of you would be deterred from, or at least reflect on, the infatuation of the deadly draughts—composed of plain spirits made from the feints and refuse of all other spirits, and only undergoing one simple process of distillation, to which are added oil of vitriol, or sulphuric acid, oil of turpentine, oil of juniper, oil of cassia, oil of caraways, oil of almonds, sulphuric æther, extract of orace root, extract of angelica root, extract of capsicums, or extract of grain of paradise, sugar, rum, sour cyder, and lime-water. This mixture is sold under the name of cheap gin. What a mess to

* The Gazette of Health, Vol. II. No. VI.

enter a man's mouth! enough to excoriate the very throat in its passage. Then, what must be the effects on the stomach, when we know that frictions of strong liniments used externally will often produce excoriations, and prove too violent for the frame, and not only produce extreme pain, but will cause spasms and contractions in the parts to which they are applied.

Brandy and rum are also manufactured by these cheap sellers, especially that called British brandy; which is composed of spirits of wine, vinegar, orace root, raisins, and vitriol, flavoured by the British brandy bitter, prepared by infusing in rectified spirits, cassia, caraways, camomile flowers, bitter orange peel, Indian berry, and other deleterious drugs; or cherry-laurel water instead of the brandy bitters, which is more potent, but highly pernicious and poisonous. To give it a fine kernel flavour, the extract of bitter almond cake is used, prepared by dissolving the cake in spirits; the extract of capsicums, and the extract of grains of Paradise, to give a hot and pungent taste in the mouth, are also prepared as the extract of almonds; taking care, for the extract of capsicums, to select the small East India chilies. In order to give colour, burnt sugar and other nastiness is mixed.

Having now before us the whole materials for fictitious brandy, as well as the ingredients for adulteration, I will give two examples from a very able work.

Example I.—To make up 100 gallons of *full proof brandy.*

50 Gallons of fine cognac brandy proof.
31 Gallons of old neutral-flavoured rum previously reduced to proof.
9 Gallons of old neutral-flavoured rum, 25 per cent over proof.
10 Gallons of Brith brandy, 22 per cent under proof.

100 Gallons.

To the above must be added,

1 Pint of colouring.
½ Pint cherry-laurel water
½ Pint of extract of almond cake.

Example II.

100 Gallons of proof made-up brandy, as in first example.
17 Gallons of water.

117 Gallons. ½ Pint of colouring, of extract of almond cake, of cherry-laurel water, and of extract of capsicums.

Rum is adulterated as well as the other spirits, the same compositions being used in regard to strength and flavour, excepting that ale, porter, and shrub, are added to it, to give it the particular taste and flavour of old Jamaica; very low-priced Leeward Island rum, and plain or rectified spirits, forming the base of this unwholesome drink. The following being the example from the same able work as the brandy examples.

Example I.—To make up 66 gallons of rum:—

55 Gallons of cheap proof Leeward Island rum.
1 Gallon of porter.
½ Gallon of ale.

½ Gallon of shrub.
9 Gallons of water.

—

66 Gallons.
¾ Pint of colouring matter.
¾ Pint extract of orace root.
⅛ Pint of cherry-laurel water.
½ Pint of extract of capsicums.

Example II.—To make up 101 gallons of fine and high-flavoured Jamaica rum.

30 Gallons of Jamaica rum, at 25 per cent. over proof.
30 Gallons of Leeward Island rum, at 8 per cent. over proof.
20 Gallons of rectified spirits, 56 per cent. over proof.
21 Gallons of water.

———

101 Gallons.
1 Pint of colouring matter.
½ Pint of extract of orace root.
¼ Pint of cherry-laurel water.

Hollands, whiskey, cordials, and compounds, are all made up in the same disgraceful way, excepting arrack, which is flavoured by gum benzoin. More or less sugar, or candy-foot, being added according to the caprice of the sellers, or tastes of the gulpers.

Wine, instead of being a blessing to society, is converted into a curse, owing to its fabrications and adulterations. The rational use of wine confers on mankind, when in health, enjoyment; and the useful prescribing of it, when in sickness, benefit. What must be the results, to a patient, when, instead of pure and genuine wine, he is given a composition of bad brandy, cider, sloe-juice, log-wood or Brazil wood, sal tartar, gum dragon, berry-dye, extract of almond-cake, cherry-laurel water, gum benzoin, sugar of lead, nay, even arsenic? Is it surprising that we should have cases in this town of disordered stomachs, weak bowels, which for a certain time are constipated; and then suddenly become relaxed, which lasts to nearly forty-eight hours before the death of the individual, when spasms and collapse take place and end in dissolution; or, according to the present fashion, in blue cholera? O, this malignant blue cholera! I am fearful we shall never get rid of you, until cheap wine and spirit shops undergo Mr. Brookes's process.

For Port wine fabrications and adulterations, the sailor's black strap, or Benecarlo, the Figuera, the red Cape are used; and, to give it richness, a little Mountain; then sal tartar to make it crust; for fulness of flavour, gum dragon: for colouring, berry-dye or logwood; cider to make up quantity, and brandy-cow to keep it. Brandy or rum-cow, is obtained by putting a certain quantity of water in fresh-emptied butts, which is allowed to stand a certain time; long enough to extract the whole of the spirit from the staves. What sailors call, 'to bull the cask.'

The adulterators of Sherry wines, either pale or brown, generally use Cape

wine, British rasin wine, cider, brandy-cow, extract of almond-cake, cherry-laurel water, gum benzoin, high-coloured British brandy, sugar of lead, or arsenic. To discharge the colour, skimmed milk and lamb's blood, in more or less quantity according to the colour desired. Madeira undergoes nearly the same process, excepting that cheap Vidonia and a twentieth part of common dry groats are used in its composition.

Vidonias are generally fabricated from cider, or British-made wine, and neutral-flavoured rum, subjected to the other additions, as Sherry and Madeira.

Bucellas is generally composed of Cape wine, dry Lisbon, and brandy-cow.

Tent; hardly any genuine is fabricated in this country.

Red Cape is adulterated by cider, and coloured by berry-dye; this berry-dye is a colouring matter extracted from the German bilberries.

Cape Madeira and Cape Sherry are generally produced by mixing spoiled and musty wines with cider, brandy-cow, and a proportion of the other ingredients, such as cherry-laurel water, &c., together; fining the mess with lamb's blood, and, if sour, adding carbonate of soda.

Thus cheap Burgundy, Hermitage, Hock, Sauterne, Claret, Champagne, and other wines are adulterated and fabricated, to the increase of dyspepsia, &c. &c.

Claret is generally composed of Spanish red wine, rough cider, berry-dye, or Brazil wood; and the Champagne, of gooseberry wine, cider, perry, Cape wine, mixed up with spoilt and ropy Champagne, softened by the addition of sugar of lead; these ingredients, by good management, will produce Sillery, still, and sparkling Champagne.

The cider, generally, for this purpose is merely turnip cider, more pungent than genuine cider, and fitter for the practice of adulterations and fabrications, having less malic acid. Is it surprising that, in this country, fraud should be used in regard to wines and spirits, when even in the wine countries it is difficult to get it genuine? Oporto itself fabricates Port wine; Bourdeaux, Claret; the Champagne districts, Champagne; and so with Burgundy, &c. I knew a friend that, when at Paris, some years back, gave a dinner; he sent to a wine merchant, ordered a variety of French wines—which that day appeared excellent: a few bottles of each were left, which he carefully put away, thinking to give a friend, at some future period, a treat. About three weeks after this grand dinner, he invited a friend or two to partake of these superior wines; but, when he drew the corks, he found in the bottles a stinking and ropy composition. He remonstrated with the French wine merchant: the Frenchman said, "You ordered wine for such a day; was it good?" The answer being, "Yes." "Well, then," said the merchant, "that is enough: I did not send you wine for that day three weeks."

The upper classes, are also as subject to adulterations and fabrications, as the lower. Their lemonades, varieties of punch, neguses, and other drinkables, which they are served with at routs, balls, operas, &c., being all any thing but genuine or wholesome. Certainly, doctors and undertakers are under great obligations to these poisoning adulterators and fabricators.

SPIRITS OF CAMPHOR.

Among the list of the thousand and one specifics against cholera or for the cure of it, is Spirits of Camphor. This drug has always been in high favour during seasons of pestilence. Great faith was placed in its preservative powers at a time when fumigating with sulphur, burning tar, and all possible means of rendering the air as unpleasant as possible, used to be put in requisition. With a piece of camphor in one's pocket, or still better, in a nice little vial, or silk bag suspended from the neck with a ribband of a particular colour, and a segar in his mouth, a man used to think himself as safe in walking the streets of Constantinople during the plague season, or in a West India town, when yellow fever was raging, as the invulnerable Achilles, when driving before him the frightened Trojans. The charm worked pretty well so long as the compact with the good genii was kept; but if our tobacco smoking and tobacco smoked and camphorated hero chose to commit a debauch by getting drunk, or gormandizing at a late supper, or going with her whose path is evil, *presto* he was carried off by the pestilence, as if he had taken no farther precautions than indifferently washing his face.

But camphor has enjoyed high reputation with the tribe of nervous folks, whose spasms and fits it is thought greatly to relieve:—the rheumatic and gouty also praise it; and every body has heard of the wonderful powers in sprains of either man or horse, of the far-famed opodeldoc, into which camphor largely enters. In nursery practice, the female doctress, or gossip for the neighbourhood, will be heard recommending spirits of camphor to the bumped forehead or cut finger of a little urchin, whose squalls and kicks by no means indicate his love of the practice.

What wonder after all this array of its virtue, that it should be announced as a cure for cholera?

Its use and reputed efficacy in certain bowel affections, such as dysentery, afforded additional hopes of the good effects which were to follow its administration in the present pestilence. Experience has not by any means responded to the sanguine anticipations. Camphor was fully and largely used on the continent of Europe, and found of itself to fail to cure, or to bring about any decided alteration of the disease. A new view was, however, all of a sudden taken of the operation of this drug. Three, and even five grains has often been taken by persons in health, without any very perceptible effect—and in common doses, physicians have often been sceptical enough to deny in toto its reputed virtues. In very large doses it acts unpleasantly as an irritant on the nervous system. By a kind of logic not always confined to the professed and confessed empiric, common doses failing in effect, very minute fractional portions have been recommended.

And now it is all the vogue to take three drops of spirits of camphor, which according to the strength of the solution, is equal to from a fourth to an eighth of a grain.

Five grains have no marked effect as preventive or cure for cholera—*therefore* we may prescribe with confidence, as possessing both these virtues, a dose equal to a twentieth or even fortieth part. This is one of the amusing parts of the transcendent medical philosophy of Dr. Hahneman, which gravely sets forth the wonderful effects of the *eighth millionth* part of a drop of some tinctures. To give the spirits of camphor, in a manner worthy of the school whence the creed in such minimum doses of medicines emanates, a drop ought to be mixed with a gallon of water, and of this latter a teaspoonful, or still better three drops should be the dose. We have no doubt that if swallowed with a firm conviction of its virtues this quantity will prove of wonderful efficacy in allaying imaginary pains and spasms, and arresting premonitory symptoms, which only exist in fancy. But if we be asked, whether in cases of real disease, the three drop dose, or the billionth part of this again, are to be relied on, we would reply by another question—Do you, the querist, believe in your own sanity of intellect, and if so, do you, in the next place believe in ours?—If you reply affirmatively in either case, you will withdraw your question, and follow the dictates of common sense and common experience; the marvellous stories of the virtues of the three drops or an eighth of a grain, of camphor doses, to the contrary notwithstanding.

HISTORY OF THE PLAGUE.

To the makers and venders of Panaceas, Vermifuges, Balms, and all other alleged quack preventives of Cholera, by pill, potion, syrup or tincture, including Port wine and all its adulterations, and camphor and capsicums, the following extract, from an historian of the great plague in London, is most appropriately dedicated.

"But even those wholesale reflections which rightly managed, would have most happily led the people to fall upon their knees, make confession of their sins, and look up to their merciful Saviour for pardon, imploring his compassion on them in such a time of their distress; by which we might have become as a second Nineveh, had a quite contrary extreme in the common people, who, ignorant and stupid in their reflections, as they were brutishly wicked and thoughtless before, were now led by their fright to extremes of folly; and as I have said before, that they ran to conjurors and witches and all sorts of deceivers, to know what should become of them; who fed their fears, and kept them

always alarmed and awake, on purpose to delude them, and pick their pockets; so they were as mad upon their running after quacks and mountebanks, and every practising old woman for medicines and remedies, storing themselves with such multitudes of pills, potions, and preservatives, as they were called; that they not only spent their money, but even poisoned themselves beforehand, for fear of the poison of the infection, and prepared their bodies for the Plague, instead of preserving them against it. On the other hand it is incredible, and scarce to be imagined, how the posts of houses and corners of streets were plastered over with doctors' bills and papers of ignorant fellows quacking and tampering in physic, and inviting the people to come to them for remedies, which was generally set off with such flourishes as these, viz.—INFALLIBLE preventive pills against the Plague,—NEVER-FAILING preservatives against the infection, —SOVEREIGN cordials against the corruption of the air,—EXACT regulations for the conduct of the body in case of an infection,—Anti-pestilential pills, INCOMPARABLE drink against the Plague, never found out before,—An UNIVERSAL remedy for the Plague, —The ONLY TRUE Plague water,—The ROYAL ANTIDOTE against all kinds of infection; and such a number more that I cannot reckon up, and if I could, would fill a book of themselves to set them down.

"Others set up bills to summon people to their lodgings for directions and advice in the case of infection: these had specious titles also, such as these:—

'An eminent high Dutch Physician, newly come over from Holland, where he resided during all the time of the great Plague, last year, in Amsterdam, and cured multitudes of people that actually had the Plague upon them.'

'An Italian gentlewoman, just arrived from Naples, having a choice secret to prevent infection, which she found out by her great experience, and did wonderful cures with it in the late Plague there, wherein there died 20,000 in one day.'

'An ancient gentlewoman having practised with great success in the late Plague in this city, Anno. 1636, gives her advice only to the female sex. To be spoke with, &c.'

'An experienced physician, who has long studied the doctrine of antidotes against all sorts of poison and infection has, after forty years' practice, arrived to such skill as may, with God's blessing, direct persons how to prevent their being touched by any contagious distemper whatsoever. He directs the poor gratis.'

"I take notice of these by way of specimen; I could give you

two or three dozen of the like, and yet have abundance left behind. It is sufficient from these to apprise any one of the humour of those times; and how a set of thieves and pick-pockets not only robbed and cheated the poor people of their money, but poisoned their bodies with odious and fatal preparations; some with mercury, and some with other things as bad, perfectly remote from the thing pretended to; and rather hurtful than serviceable to the body in case an infection followed.

"I cannot omit a subtlety of one of those quack operators, with which he gulled the poor people to crowd about him, but did nothing for them without money. He had, it seems, added to his bills, which he gave about the streets, this advertisement in capital letters, viz.—He gives advice to the poor for nothing.

"Abundance of poor people came to him accordingly, to whom he made a great many fine speeches, examined them of the state of their health, and of the constitution of their bodies, and told them many good things for them to do, which were of no great moment: but the issue and conclusion of all was, that he had a preparation, which if they took such a quantity of every morning, he would pawn his life they should never have the Plague, —no, though they lived in the house with people that were infected; this made the people all resolve to have it; but then the price of that was so much, I think it was half a-crown: but, Sir, says one poor woman, I am a poor alms-woman, and am kept by the parish, and your bills say, you give the poor your help for nothing. Ay, good woman, says the doctor, so I do, as I published there: I give my advice to the poor for nothing, but not my physic! Alas, Sir, says she, that is a snare laid for the poor then; for you give them your advice for nothing, that is to say, you advise them gratis, to buy your physic for their money; so does every shopkeeper with his wares. Here the woman began to give him ill words, and stood at his door all that day, telling her tale to all the people that came, till the doctor finding she turned away his customers, was obliged to call her up stairs again, and give her his box of physic for nothing, which, perhaps too, was good for nothing when she had it."

POPULAR ERRORS.

Among many popular errors may be cited the following:

1. That persons who are dropsical ought to abstain from drinking, for fear of increasing the swelling:

2. That ardent spirits, and other heating drinks, or even tea and coffee, remove indigestion, whilst, in fact, they almost always aggravate it:

3. That brandy, or any such distilled liquor, is of service, or necessary, when the weather is very hot or very cold, or when a person is over-fatigued:

4. That good fruits and ripe grapes cause dysentery—when, in fact, they are a remedy for the disease. It is only during convalescence that they ought to be abstained from:

5. That, if a little of any thing be good, a great deal must be still better. Milk is a good article of diet for valetudinarians: a man with a weak stomach drinks a quantity of it, and wonders, after a time, why such should be heavy on his stomach. So it is with the waters of mineral springs, and many other things:

5. That vaccination is the cause of the various eruptions on the skin which may show themselves for years afterwards. The innate proneness to cutaneous erruption—the gross diet of the child, and want of cleanliness, go for nothing in the eyes of some fond parents.

A RUSSIAN HOUSEHOLD.

The household of Mr. Gologordoffsky was exactly such as, in days of yore, were those of the ancient feudal Barons and of the old Polish *Pans*. The principal servants were, in the first place, the confidential agent for the management of law-suits, of which there was always pending, in the different courts, two or three dozen; the commissary, or head steward, over the whole property; the *econome*, or under-steward; the *marshalek*, who presided over the table-service and the domestics; the stud-master, who governed the stables and grooms; the head cook, or commander-in-chief of the pots and pans, cooks and kitchen-maids; the *okhmeestreena*, or housekeeper, who commanded the maidservants, and superintended the linen and the pantry, which in Polish is called *aptetchka*, and contains sweets of all sorts, preserves, confections, sugar, coffee, and a numerous array of spirits and cordials. Besides these servants of honourable station, there lived in the house, in all readiness, the *kapel-meister*, or music-master, who taught the young ladies and gentlemen music, and presided at the orchestre, consisting of twelve people, who in winter (besides,) filled the office of footmen, but in summer raked hay, and worked the garden. The *kapelyan*, or chaplain, a monk of the order of Jesuits, had under his inspection three tutors, and watched over the education of Mr. Gologordoffsky's children: in addition to this there was a French *gouverneur*, and *madame*, a French woman, with the young ladies. The gardener, a German, was at the same time member of the board of agriculture. The squire had for his own person a free valet-de-chambre, a *shly-*

*akhtitch** who was a favourite, and his confidant in secret affairs; his lady had likewise a lady of equal rank for the same purpose, who, though she discharged all the duty of chambermaid, yet, in virtue of her birth and merit, exacted respect in the house, and was addressed *Panna*, or Ma'am. The young ladies had likewise each a *panna* from among the *sklyakhtyankas*, who had charge of their wardrobe and the female servants of their suit, of whom, with each of the young ladies, one bore the name of *Garderobnoy*. The chase formed a department of itself, and was partly under the inspection of the stable-keeper, and partly of the squire himself, who was a great sportsman. Amongst the sportsmen were several *shlyakhtitches*, who went under the name of *strelitz*. Most of the upper servants, such as the law-agent, or *plenipotent*, *commissary*, *marshalek*, *stud-master*, *econome*, *kapel-meister*, and *gouverneur*, lived in the house with their wives and children; besides their salary, they received rations of provisions for their own table or ordinary, were attended by the servants of the house, and kept their own horses at the squire's expense. All the other free servants also received rations; the house vassals were partly fed from the squire's table, and besides that had a table of their own. But, as the free servants spent a great part of their allowance in drink, and the vassals never had enough to eat, every one laid hold of whatever he could, by hook or by crook. Besides these feudal attendants, there lived in the house, for the sake of company and amusement to the squire and his lady, some gentlemen and ladies, toad-eaters, friends, and distant relations, under the name of residents. They received no salary, but had the advantage of the table, kept their own servants, and some of them had the privilege of keeping horses. Amongst the number of these residents were some batchelor creditors of Mr. Gologordoffsky, some widows of old servants whose wages had remained unpaid after some twenty years service, and some orphans possessed of capital under the guardianship of the landlord. In a word, Mr. Gologordoffsky's house contained nearly as many mouths and stomachs as there were working hands on the whole property, and from this cause the working hands were sadly tormented, and made but feeble exertions to fill the stomachs of so overwhelming a majority of sinecurists. It is true that Mr. Gologordoffsky himself, his family, and guests invited to partake of his hospitality, ate and drank well; but his huge table had at one extremity what is called "a grey end," where no dainty dishes or savoury wines ever reached, and where in full measure was felt the inconvenience of a disproportion between *outlay* and *income*.

* Shlyakhtitch is the name given to the small Polish gentry; synonymous with the old English term of franklin or yeoman.

TO OUR READERS.

At the approach of the fourth year of their labours, the Editors of the Journal of Health find themselves, with unabated zeal, materials the most ample and subjects diversified, again called on to renew their pledges to the public, and in a more especial manner to the readers of this work. The utility of the plan which, after mature deliberation, they had projected, has, by time and experience been fully tested. Of the value of the doctrines inculcated, and the appositeness of the facts and illustrations, by which they have been enforced, it may not become the Editors to boast. But they cannot pass over in silence the strong, startling confirmation of all their views, some of them, at the time, regarded as extreme and impracticable on the subject of dietetics and temperance. Within a few months, the scoffer, the incredulous, the temporizing, have with a surprising unanimity, echoed sentiments, which when they first appeared in the Journal of Health, were derided as adverse to epicurean enjoyment and full bodily vigour and health. The Cholera carries in its history, confirmation strong as proof from holy writ, of all that has been so emphatically dwelt on in this work, touching the true means of preserving health, and of walking with all the positive security which can be allowed to mere humanity, amid scenes of pestilence and death. Their task would, however, be imperfectly performed, were the Editors to rest satisfied with merely warning their fellow-citizens to shun the great and wide road to destruction, without at the same time pointing out the numerous by-paths which lead to disease, deformity, and death. Among these, the most numerous and misleading are the vices of early *physical education.* Parents are too often in their ignorance of this important subject, the destroyers of their children, by indulging them in improper articles of food, by neglect of suitable apparel and exercises, and by inculcating or allowing of absurd fashions of dress—caps, ligatures of various kinds, for children,—corsets for young women, &c. Much has been said on these points, much yet remains untold. The people, in the large democratic sense, require to be roused to a fuller sense of their wants, and to the means of gratifying them in relation to health. *Public Baths and Public Gymnasia* ought to be in every city, town, and village of the land; nor shall the Editors cease their efforts to bring about so desirable a result. *Public and Private Architecture* is far from being made as subservient to the preservation of health as it might be. *Scite* and *Exposure* are not attended to—nor are judicious *Ventilation* and *Warming* of houses as well understood as would be required, not only for personal comfort but for the claims of humanity. The mortality brought about by typhus fever and cholera, in places and edifices crowded with human beings, ought of itself to persuade every philanthropist to inquiry and exertion, in order to obviate the chief cause, which consists in a confined and impure air. Much yet remains for the successors of a Howard and Benezet, in this branch of reform. The knowledge on which plans for amelioration ought to be founded, is often wanting in those who have the controlling power in such

matters. It will be for the Editors of this Journal to continue to furnish, as heretofore, the requisite data to guide these persons.

The laws of habit are best understood by watching and noting the customs of a people, and the practices of individuals, whose situation and genius have been such as to render them, in a measure, public property. Both their foibles and their virtues—the one for warning, the other for example and encouragement, are full of instruction for those who come after them. The sketches of the lives of *Byron* and *Burns*, in a former volume, in which was indicated the influence of regimen on their literary pursuits and health, show the manner in which the subject may be treated, both in the interests of morality and hygiene.

In fine, there yet remains as materials for future volumes of this Journal, copious details in *Medical Geography* and *Statistics*, including the influence of *Localities*, *Soil*, and *Water*—*Physical Education* comprising a consideration of *food*, *exercise*, and *clothing*, the *proportion of time for study*, compatible with health—*The influence* of *the mind*—a correct theory of *moral sentiments*, and of the *intellectual faculties*; the eccentricities of genius, and the aberrations constituting insanity—*Medical Jurisprudence*, as far as an exclusion of technical terms and language not agreeable to ears polite, will allow—*Physiology*, or the *Study of Healthy Functions*, illustrated by the habits and instincts of animals—Numerous questions of *Public Hygiene*, in which Legislative or Corporate government is exercised, as in quarantines, removal of nuisances, &c. or of whatever is permanently destructive to the public health and welfare—*Social customs* and *usages* interfering with individual comfort, and bodily and mental well-being, shall still be animadverted on.

The Publisher would respectfully apprise the readers and patrons of the Journal of Health, that, for the coming year, the numbers to compose the fourth volume will be issued *monthly*. Each number will consist of thirty-two pages, of the same size as heretofore—so that the volume can be bound uniformly, with the volumes of former years. *The terms of subscription are the same*—lower, it is believed, than for any periodical of the same standing and variety of matter, in the country. The postage, it is hoped, will be even still less than before. Pains will be taken to second the efforts of the Editors by the frequent introduction of good engravings, for illustrations and ornament. Upon the whole, it is confidently believed, that under the new arrangement, still greater interest will be imparted to the pages of the Journal of Health.

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